The Nation.

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The Week.

In the act of voting almost unanimously on Thursday for a Nicaraguan canal, the House made it altogether likely that the canal may really be constructed at Panama. All that was really signified by the passage of the bill was an overwhelming desire that an Isthmian canal be dug somewhere or other, and a renewed confession by the Representatives that they are not able or willing to legislate seriously, and that they prefer to leave everything to the Senate. In casting 102 votes, as against 170, for an amendment favoring the Panama route, the House gave the plainest kind of hint to Senators to go ahead and buy out the Panama Company, in the perfect assurance that the unterrified Hepburn and all the rest would meekly acquiesce. Indeed, Hepburn himself could advance no stronger argument for his bill than that the action of the House upon it could easily be reversed if the all-wise Senate so asked. The whole exhibition on the part of the House was melancholy, and even shocking. Openly to shirk responsibility, to rush like sheep to pass a bill which every man who voted for it must have known to be improperly drawn and to have no chance of becoming law, and without a blush of shame to call upon the Senate to do the work of the House—how could a great assembly stand more palpably self-condemned? Several Representatives, we are glad to say, were conscious of the humiliation involved in such shiftless legislation, and openly protested against the leadership which had brought the House to so insignificant a pass.

As for the terms of the Nicaragua bill itself, the admission of slovenliness could no further go. The bill is precisely the same (except for changing an 8 to a 4), down to the smallest word, as that passed by the House last May. All that has happened since then is completely ignored by the high and mighty Hepburn. The report of our own Canal Commissioners, to secure which Congress voted $1,000,000, simply does not exist for him. Take one item. The expert Canal Commissioners estimated the cost of a Nicaraguan canal, exclusive of the sum required for the right of way, at $189,000,000. The Hepburn bill provides that the total cost, right of way and all, shall not "exceed in the aggregate $180,000,000." He has thus quietly raised his estimate of last May by $40,000,000, but still professes to know more about it than any mere engineer who has studied the problem on the spot.

The speech made by Mr. Hepburn on January 7 on his Nicaraguan Canal Bill was disreputable in more than one particular. It contained the immoral suggestion that the canal, when built, should be free of tolls to American ships, meaning that there should be discrimination against foreign ships. This is in the teeth of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, upon which the ink is scarcely dry, which declares that there shall be no discrimination whatever in the use of the canal for or against the ships of any nation. When Mr. Hepburn was pressed for an explanation of his words on this point, he said he hoped that Great Britain would give consent to discrimination in favor of our ships, although he must have known that the whole aim of British diplomacy (and of our own, too), until this time, has been diametrically opposed to discrimination in tolls. Mr. Hepburn said that our war-ships would go through free of toll anyway—a statement that can be true only in the sense that, as we are to build and own the canal, the tolls will be taken out of one pocket and put into the other. Under the treaty there is no more chance of discrimination in tolls on war-ships than on merchant ships.

It is disreputable in another sense that Mr. Hepburn seems not to have read the report of our Isthmian Canal Commission. In a colloquy with Mr. Reeves of Illinois he said that, inasmuch as the Panama Company had no right to sell out to the United States without the consent of the Colombian Government, it had forfeited its concession; and Mr. Reeves apparently assented to that view. Yet on pages 219 and 220 of the Commission's report there is a letter from Admiral Walker to M. Hutin acknowledging receipt of certain correspondence between the latter and Señor Silva, the Colombian Minister at Washington, showing that the Colombian Government had authorized him (Hutin) to enter into negotiations with the purpose of selling the Panama Canal to the Government of the United States. This statement, which was published in the newspapers months ago, cannot be questioned or ignored without disputing either the genuineness of the letters or the authority of the Colombian Minister to commit his Government. As no such question was raised by Mr. Hepburn, the natural inference is that he has not read the report of the Commission. It seems, however, that one Congressman who took part in the debate, Mr. Mann of Illinois, had actually familiarized himself with the contents of the report, for he said that he did not agree with Mr. Hepburn that the Panama Company had forfeited its rights by offering to sell its concession to the United States. Mr. Mann also, while favoring Mr. Hepburn's bill, dashed the hopes of the latter in reference to discrimination in tolls, by pointing to the clause in the new treaty which forbids it—a very simple but very necessary reminder to the Chairman of the House committee having charge of this important matter.

The new Ship-Subsidy Bill which has been introduced by Senator Frye, is made up of two entirely distinct parts, the first relating to mail subsidy, and the second to general subsidy. These not only are kept entirely distinct in the provisions of the act, but rest on entirely different principles. The mail subsidy, if justifiable, can be given only on the basis of value received by the Government in the carrying of the mails. If the Government does not receive value for what it pays, the system has no justification, and the payment must be regarded as a mere bonus. It is not difficult in this case to pass on the question of value received. The present bill, so far as it relates to mail subsidies, merely amends the Postal Subsidy Act of 1891 by increasing the compensation to vessels and altering their classification. The Act of 1891 was preëminently in the interest of the American Line, and the amendment now before Congress, by means of that concealment of special gifts under technical provisions which was such a feature of the former subsidy bill, is still more directly a gift to that line. The limit of the tonnage of the vessels of the first class which are to receive the highest subsidy, has been apparently so fixed as to exclude every American vessel afloat except the four ships of the American Line. During the last fiscal year of the Post-Office Department, the American Line carried about 71,000,000 grams of letters and 641,000,000 grams of printed matter, for which the Government, under the Act of 1891, paid it $528,536. During the same year the Cunard Line carried almost twice this weight of letters (137,000,000 grams) and 835,000,000 grams of printed matter, but received for the service only $213,103; and the White Star Line, which carried about 62,000,000 grams of letters and 326,000,000 grams of printed matter, received but $91,591. That is, the Government is now paying to the American Line for an irregular service a rate about three times higher than it pays for service by other lines carrying the same mails, and this on a theory of "value received."

Congressman McCall has introduced a bill to restore the provisions of the McKinley tariff relating to personal bag-

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gage, and to remove the $100 limit. We do not see any sound objection to such a return to a civilized method of treating Americans coming home from Europe. It would cease to make our customs laws a laughing-stock to foreigners, and a source of humiliation and often actual danger to our own citizens so unfortunate as to desire, or to be compelled, to travel abroad. We know it is said that the present barbarous law is necessary in order to head off the operations of swindling tailors and smuggling milliners, who would otherwise bring in dozens of trunks full of garments for their customers, under the guise of "personal baggage." To all such cheating we are, of course, as much opposed as any one, but there is reason in all things. What is the secret service for, why do special agents of the Treasury exist, except to unearth and run down such frauds on the revenue? We read all the while of the arrest of diamond-smugglers, and we are sure that the suave milliners and the slippery tailors could be caught in the same way. Why should a whole nation be forced to suffer for their sins? We have no objection whatever to seeing Paris-made gowns and London-made suits dragged from the trunks of smugglers and made to pay the duty which the law provides; but why force 200,000 American travellers to suffer in purse, in feelings, often in health, and always in patriotic pride, merely in order to catch a few tricky milliners and defrauding tailors?

The President's readiness to hear the appeal of Rear-Admiral Schley from the findings of the Court of Inquiry should reassure people who have believed in the existence of a gigantic conspiracy against this officer. In ordinary court-martial cases, in both the army and the navy, where the sentence does not involve dismissal from the service, the President is not expected to pass upon the findings, although he has the right to do so. The same is true as to courts of inquiry. In both cases, however, the etiquette and discipline of the service demand that the papers shall come up to the Commander-in-Chief through the regular official channels—in this case through the Secretary of the Navy. The President's action in the matter is final. Only in rare instances has Congress set aside the action of a court-martial which has received Executive approval, by restoring a dismissed officer to active service. President Roosevelt's action will, it is to be hoped, finally end the matter, and will prevent the Schley adherents from claiming that any tribunal has been closed to them. There is no reason to believe, however, that the President will reverse the findings of the entire court in regard to Schley's negligence, disobedience of orders, and evident incapacity for his high position, while there is good ground for accepting the press statements that he will veto any bill to exonerate or promote a man who has been so overwhelmingly condemned by three of his fellow flag-officers.

Close upon the warning of the London *Times* concerning the probable inadequacy of our bank currency at a future period of stringency, comes the news from the Treasury that the volume of notes outstanding is decreasing as rapidly as the law will permit. The maximum rate of decrease now allowed by the National Bank Act is $3,000,000 per month, and this limit has been reached for December and January, while further applications for more than another month in advance have been filed. At this rate, a large part of the increase in bank circulation under the law of March 14, 1900, will have been offset by corresponding withdrawals before the end of next September. The usual autumnal demand for currency with which to move the crops will then be felt in its full strength, just as the circulation has lost much of its recent gain in volume. This situation is far more serious than appears on the surface. Large numbers of new banks have been organized under the law of 1900, and, should the circulation fall to its old level, the decline will mean that the conditions of note-issue are even less attractive to-day than they were under the unmodified bank act. A strong demand by the lately organized banks for the recently issued bonds, in order to make their necessary deposit, and the present strength of the Treasury, are undoubtedly responsible for the unexpectedly high price of the 2 per cent. bonds, and the consequent unwillingness of banks to invest more largely in Government securities than they are compelled to do. This is merely a repetition of the too familiar experience with our bank currency. When stringency arrives, and the delays at Washington make it impossible to get notes in time to give relief, we shall probably awaken from our satisfaction with present currency conditions. Why not act now upon some one of the plans so often suggested to Congress, before the difficulty becomes acute?

The prevention by arbitration of two threatened strikes indicates that the year is opening with omens favorable to industrial peace. Strikes averted by arbitration naturally make less noise than those which actually occur, but it was none the less a real service that was rendered by the Arbitration Committee of the National Civic Federation in composing the differences between the Clothing Manufacturers' Association and its employees. Had it not been for the work of a sub-committee which met representatives both of the employers and of the men, a strike involving from 40,000 to 55,000 garment-workers would probably have ensued. On a smaller scale, but quite as interesting, is the outcome of the dispute between a Brooklyn shoe-manufacturing firm and its employees. Mr. Stark, State Mediator of Industrial Disputes, who was lately chosen as the fifth member of a committee intrusted with the decision of the question at issue, has given his verdict in favor of the employers. While the Civic Federation Committee has had to depend solely upon its own tact, and the sense of fairness among those to whom it appealed, the decision of Mr. Stark is supported by a forfeit of $10,000, agreed upon by both parties to the dispute in the Brooklyn shoe factory. The difference in the character of the two decisions is, perhaps, due to these differing conditions of arbitration. The Civic Federation Committee made concessions to both disputants. Mr. Stark gave his verdict unequivocally for the employer. A definite decision is much more likely to be rendered when the judge feels that he has final power in his own hands than when he must negotiate in order to secure its acceptance.

The most important question in the railway world to-day is the one on which Mr. James J. Hill addressed a convention of farmers and stock-growers at Fargo, N. D., on Friday. His speech was a defence of the combination recently formed for merging the Great Northern, the Northern Pacific, and the Burlington systems into one corporation, the Northern Securities Company. It was a very strong argument, if not wholly conclusive, and had a considerable effect upon an audience whose prejudices ran pretty strongly the other way. Mr. Hill asked the question whether the people of Minnesota and the Dakotas would have objected to the building of the Burlington lines by the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Companies, if the Burlington Company itself had never existed, and if its territory were unoccupied. If not, then why should they object to the purchase of those lines when already built? A critic might answer that the first question at issue relates to the merger of the two Northern lines, before the Burlington comes into the field of contention at all, and that the second question relates to the amount of securities issued for the Burlington, which are virtually a fixed charge upon the whole combination. As these questions are soon to come before the courts, we shall not discuss them, but merely point them out as elements of the problem. It is quite true that the Northern Securities Company is not the first of its kind in the United States. The Pennsylvania Company, which was formed to bring and hold together the Pennsylvania Railroad and its Western connections, has existed for a quarter of a century without adverse comment, and it is reported now that it has embraced the

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Baltimore and Ohio within its ample folds.

Mr. Belmont's failure to carry the election in the Seventh District, and, incidentally, to supply the Democracy with the intellectual and moral leadership which it sorely needs, irresistibly recalls that magnificent tribute of the negro orator to the retiring Governor of South Carolina, in the old carpet-bag days. "He reached the Governor's chair," said the eloquent toastmaster, "in the face of great opposition; he leaves it with none at all." So of Mr. Belmont it may be said that his nomination was one of the most bitterly contested ever known, but that his defeat has been received with universal acquiescence and even cheerfulness. His campaign was one long series of unfortunate misunderstandings. The candidate misunderstood Croker, and Croker misunderstood him; he failed to develop elective affinities with Murphy, and could not, do what he would, put himself *en rapport* with Battery Dan Finn. The crowning misunderstanding was with the voters of the district, and this was so colossal that it turned Muller's Democratic majority of 4,332 in 1900 into a plurality against Belmont of 394. There must be a moral of some kind in such figures, and, for our part, we think it is an artistic one. It will be observed that Mr. Belmont was slaughtered in the house of his friend, the art connoisseur, the Hon. "Nick" Muller. Richmond County alone made an overturn of more than 2,300 votes. This, in our judgment, was due to the low views of art that Mr. Belmont stood for in the eyes of the Staten Island voters. He thought he could palm off upon them a rubbishy painting, given to Muller purely in the way of friendship, worth only $200, and the work of an artist so insignificant that he could not even recall his name. If it had been a Corot or a Diaz, the result, we are firmly convinced, would have been different. It is necessary to raise art, hand in hand with politics, to a "higher plane."

The annual banquet of the Institute of Electrical Engineers on Monday evening was a testimonial of the profession to Signor Marconi. It expressed their appreciation of his wonderful achievements in sending electrical signals across the Atlantic Ocean by the wireless system. Hitherto there has been doubt in the public mind whether this achievement was well authenticated or not, since the experimenter himself had not published any statement of the facts signed with his own name. His speech in the presence of such men as Alexander Graham Bell, Elihu Thompson, and Professor Pupin, and the approving letters of Mr. Edison and Mr. Tesla, will convince everybody that the reports sent out from St. Johns, a few weeks ago, were true. But this is not all. The public are now prepared to accept more than has heretofore been claimed by the inventor. He now says that he has devised a method by which the messages sent by the wireless system can be kept secret. This is accomplished by attuning the sender and the receiver so that the latter will respond only to a particular note. This is not a new conception. It was brought out and exhibited by Elisha Gray by wire transmission in 1876. Of course, nobody then suspected that the same effects could be produced by aerial transmission. The commercial consequences of Signor Marconi's discoveries cannot now be estimated, but they are likely to be of the highest importance.

There is every reason to anticipate that the Government of Newfoundland will oppose the renewal of the *modus vivendi* concerning the French shore. The renewal of this temporary arrangement for the year 1901 was regarded as a great concession to the home Government, and was made only in consideration of the difficulties of the general foreign situation which confronted the Salisbury Ministry. It is doubtful if the Provincial Government will listen again to such an appeal. It is hard to see how Mr. Chamberlain can refuse to move in this matter. As things now stand, the Newfoundlanders have the grievance of being shut off from about 800 miles of their own coast, and suffer the humiliation of seeing what is virtually foreign sovereignty exercised in various exasperating forms on their own territory. It has been interestingly shown by Mr. P. T. McGrath in the *North American Review* for January that the French claim of an exclusive concession on the west coast exceeds the stipulations of the treaty of Utrecht; that the right to fish and use the coast for purposes incidental to the fisheries is concurrent, and not exclusive; and that America, by the convention of 1818, acquired equal rights on this coast with France and Newfoundland.

The probably unique spectacle of a Prime Minister publicly rebuking a Minister of a friendly Power was witnessed on January 8 in the Reichstag. To be sure, Count von Bülow, when he spoke of unfriendly criticism of the German army, did not mention Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. It was clear enough, however, that, when he dwelt on the impropriety of justifying an unpopular policy by adducing foreign examples, he had in mind the speech in which Mr. Chamberlain paralleled the British policy in South Africa with the German campaign against the *francs-tireurs* in 1871. These pot-and-kettle comparisons, the German Premier felt, were peculiarly odious when made between nations which have had guerrilla wars on their hands. Now it should be said that in this very courteous rebuke Count von Bülow was far from following his own counsel of "leaving foreign countries out of the discussion"; for a rebuke, it was quite as explicit as if Mr. Chamberlain had stood in sackcloth and ashes before the Reichstag. From this introduction into German parliamentary procedure of the methods of debate most thoroughly exemplified in our own Senate, Lord Rosebery should draw a text for his next academic discourse "On a Certain Acerbity in the Colonial Secretary."

Whatever may be the effect of the spectacular return of the Imperial Court to Peking, there is little doubt that that city will remember the autumn of 1900 as the Romans still remember the spring of 1527, when the troops of the Constable Bourbon sacked the town. That the effect of the foreign occupation and of the numerous punitive expeditions was exemplary, even upon the populace of Peking, should not be assumed too lightly. The Chinese of Pechili have certainly learned to fear the foreigner, but it is by no means certain that they are not waiting their chance for revenge. One must remember, too, that the great mass of the subjects of the Emperor will never so much as learn of the humiliation of the court, of the ceremonious apologies, and of the heads of Ministers offered to the envoys of the Powers—or, if they learn of these at all, will hear some official version which bears the color of a triumph over the "foreign devil." We are likely to forget how insignificant a fact the sacking of the Imperial City is to the other provinces of China. We Americans probably feel quite as keenly the almost forgotten burning of Washington in the war of 1812. One must recognize, then, that if there has come about any real reform in Chinese conditions, it has not been through any change in the attitude of the people toward the foreigner, but through some change in the character of the court and of the viceroys. We know that for the moment the court has been reorganized upon the basis of friendliness to the foreigner. What we do not know is how sincere this attitude is, and it is certain that no more in China than elsewhere is it grateful to kiss the hand that smites. If the Empress Dowager and the Emperor really fear the foreigner, we may suppose that they will put down relentlessly the anti-foreign societies which, as things go in China, will always be a possible cause of disturbance. But it is quite as likely that the court feels that the return is virtually a triumph; that the sojourn at Singan, the ancient capital, proved that the Powers, Russia excepted, can do no more than touch the empire at its borders. It should be remembered, too, that the court returns in its own time, and, on the whole, upon its own terms.

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THE TREASURY SURPLUS.

The menace to business interests consequent upon the withdrawal of money from the banks into the Treasury, in excess of the Government's disbursements, has been the subject of standing comment in the newspapers for a generation, and at times of angry criticism and objurgation against the statesmen at the head of the Treasury Department. Various plans have been devised for securing the automatic, or at least the regular, return of the surplus funds of the Government to business channels. A bill to accomplish this end, which was introduced in the House last week by Congressman Sulzer of New York, merits attention. According to our recollection, this plan was first suggested by Secretary Gage in a public address, but he has never seen fit to embody it in an official report as a formal recommendation to Congress. He may have apprehended the censure of the smaller banks of the country if he should suggest any plan that would omit them from the list of depositories of the public funds, whereas Congressman Sulzer is exposed to no such animadversion. We understand that the essential features of this measure will be embodied in a more comprehensive measure, to be adopted by the House Committee on Banking and Currency, and to be reported for consideration during the present session. Accordingly, we shall offer some reasons why the principles embodied in it should be favorably received by Congress.

The measure proposes that the Secretary of the Treasury be directed to deposit all surplus funds belonging to the United States Government with national banks having a capital of not less than $500,000 and a surplus of not less than $500,000—such deposits to be made without requiring United States Government bonds as security; that on such deposits the United States Treasury shall receive interest at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum; that such deposits shall be a first lien on the assets of the bank; and that no deposits in any one bank shall be greater than the combined capital and surplus of such bank. The plan as originally suggested by Secretary Gage provided that the deposits should be made in the banks of the central reserve cities, New York, Chicago, and St. Louis. This restriction would spare the Treasury some trouble in the handling of the funds, but it would probably be impracticable to secure the adoption by Congress of any plan which should draw a line against such cities as Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans, and exclude their banks from participation in the deposits.

The present methods of restoring the surplus funds of the Treasury to the money market depend upon the abundance of Government bonds in the market and the price at which they can be bought. If the Secretary decides to use his surplus in buying the bonds outright, he lessens the total amount outstanding, and increases the difficulty of his next operation. If he decides to deposit his surplus in national banks, he must have Government bonds as security therefor. This is a requirement of law, and he has no discretion to take anything else. The law was passed nearly forty years ago, when the supply of Government bonds was abundant and increasing and the price was correspondingly low. Opposite conditions prevail at present. The bonds are scarce, the price is high, the demand for private and trust investment is increasing as the supply diminishes.

The proposed measure would look to a first lien on assets of the banks for security of the deposits, and, instead of exacting Government bonds as a pledge, would require the payment of interest for the money deposited. A calculation has been made by the statistical department of the Treasury, showing that, if the law regulating Government deposits in the banks had been such originally, not only would there have been no loss, but there would have been a gain of $32,000,000 in the way of interest. This ought to be a decisive argument in favor of the change. It may be argued that it would be unfair to the regular customers of the banks to give to one depositor (the Government) a superior lien on the assets in case of failure. That feature, however, exists in the present law. The deposited bonds are a part of the assets of the depository banks. They are the choicest assets, and upon these the Government has the first lien. If they should decline in value, there is another provision of law which gives the Government a first lien on the remaining assets.

The practical question is not whether the security of the proposed plan is exactly equal to that of the existing system, but whether it is sufficient to protect the Treasury. We think there can be no doubt on this point. By restricting the deposits to banks which have capital and surplus equal to $1,000,000, by limiting the amount of deposits in any particular bank to the measure of such capital and surplus, and by leaving to the Secretary a discretion in the choice of the depositories, so that he may exclude any bank which rests under his suspicion, it really seems as though any doubt were mere cavilling, especially when we consider that the Governments of the Old World deposit all their collections in banks without any special security whatever.

A SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.

The presumption is always against the establishment of a new office. It must prove its right to exist. To this rule of sound politics the proposal of an additional branch of executive government, to be known as the Department of Commerce, is no exception. The country should not demand or approve it, nor should Congress vote it, if it is intended simply to provide a parcel of unoccupied patriots with pleasant sinecures. It is doomed in advance if it contemplates merely the erection of what Burke's sarcasm, directed against the reconstructed Board of Trade, described as "a sort of gently ripening hot-house, where eight members of Parliament receive salaries of a thousand a year, in order to mature at a proper occasion to a claim for two thousand."

President Roosevelt urged in his message the creation of a Secretary of Commerce. His recommendation has received the endorsement of many merchants and manufacturers, and on Thursday the bill introduced by Senator Nelson to establish the new department was favorably reported by the Committee on Commerce. It provides that "it shall be the province and duty of said department to foster, promote, and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States." Here is certainly a vast field of activity. The President's language was even broader; the new department, he declared, should be but one phase of "a comprehensive and far-reaching scheme of constructive statesmanship, for the purpose of broadening our markets, securing our business interests on a safe basis, and making firm our new position in the international industrial world." In a recent article, Mr. A. B. Hepburn urges that "the time has arrived when Congress should broaden its policy, and aid our people in commanding the markets of the world." "How better can this be done," he asks, "than by creating a Department of Commerce and Industries, charged with the supervision and promotion of commerce and trade?"

It is not easy to see precisely how a Secretary of Commerce could succeed in conquering the markets of the world when confronted by a Congress which resolutely refuses to make the slightest concessions to foreign countries. Neither is it possible that, under our system of government, he should ever possess the powers of the "foreign section" of the Ministries of Commerce in Continental countries, which is charged with the preparation of tariffs and customs legislation, the enforcement of maximum or minimum rates, and the negotiation of treaties of commerce and navigation. It is, however, entirely possible that a Department of Commerce should wield an enormous influence in domestic industry. The present drift of public opinion suggests that it might be made the agency for exerting the authority to regulate interstate commerce. It is easy to conceive of a Secretary who should have

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somewhat the same relation to the business interests of the country as that held by the Comptroller of the Currency towards the banks. If the bill now pending and designed to secure publicity in the accounts of corporations should be passed, the new Secretary might be vested with the power both of ascertaining and publishing the facts of domestic business. It was some such idea as this which led Mr. Dill, in his recent address at Chicago, to say, "No man in the United States, not barring the President, will exercise such a potent influence over the future life of this country as the Secretary of the Department of Commerce."

That any man will be endowed by Congress with such powers as these, or that his functions will be permitted to expand along the lines suggested by Mr. Dill, is, to say the least, highly unlikely. About all that can be expected of the new department is that it shall faithfully conduct the work now done by scattered bureaus, like the Life-Saving Service and the Bureau of Navigation in the Treasury Department, the Census and Patent Offices in the Interior, and the Foreign Commerce Bureau of the State Department, and others, which are to be brought together. To these is to be added a Bureau of Manufactures. The Department would thus serve the same purpose as the British Board of Trade. That body at present consists of six offices. One deals with commercial statistics, one with the inspection of railways, general oversight of their rates, and the granting of patents, and one with marine matters, including the examination of seamen and the inspection of ships. A harbor bureau is intrusted with lighthouse and quarantine control, a financial office has charge of life insurance and bankruptcy matters, and another section deals with all questions involving sea fisheries.

As a measure intended mainly to relieve the existing departments of irrelevant work, Senator Nelson's bill commends itself as business-like. The Treasury would be stronger if it could be freed from the necessity of performing multifarious unrelated duties, and could confine its attention strictly to its financial operations. The same may be said of the other departments affected, for the bureaus they would surrender are such only as do not accord with their general scope, and have been assumed from time to time under stress of circumstances. On the other hand, the various offices and services united under the Secretary of Commerce could doubtless be made to work together in far greater harmony than now. Uniformity in our Government publications and in our commercial statistics would alone be a vast gain. Beyond such a practical, every-day end there seems at present little reason to expect much. Yet we recognize the fact that a man of broad views and energy might make of the new Secretaryship, if he were so minded, a powerful agency for imbuing the nation with those enlightened conceptions of foreign commerce upon which it must act if it is to rise to the height of its great opportunity.

CURRENCY REFORM IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Recent dispatches from Manila, disclosing the currency confusion which is vexing the merchants in that city, should call fresh attention to the report of Mr. Charles A. Conant, Special Commissioner of the War Department, which has recently been published. The difficulties lately experienced by the Philippine Commission in maintaining the artificial rate of exchange between American gold and Mexican silver ought to result in concentrating attention upon the settlement of the Philippine monetary question. The Commission itself recommended a plan to attain this end nearly a year ago, but no action was taken. Its suggestions, however, are vividly recalled in Mr. Conant's report. Of the four methods proposed for dealing with the monetary question, he agrees with the Commission in selecting that which provides for the adoption of a gold standard, with a legal-tender silver coin, known as the "peso," of limited coinage, containing twenty-five grams of silver, and exchangeable for 50 cents in American gold. The question, after all, involves no large matters of theory, but is mainly one of detail. That the special circumstances of the case admit of a transition to the gold standard, the opinion of the Philippine Commission sufficiently attests, and that such a step will be beneficial is fully established by Mr. Conant's investigation.

The solution of the Philippine banking question, if we were to stay in the islands, would not be so easy. In dealing with it Mr. Conant has had to break fresh ground. According to him, the principal needs of the islands are two —better banking facilities, including mortgage banks, and a suitable note-currency. Some means of making agricultural loans is an immediate necessity. The present methods of cultivation are antiquated, and capital is needed in order that more modern modes of production may be introduced, and good seed, draught animals, and tools provided. Some idea of the difficulties under which the Filipino farmer now labors may be gathered from the single fact that the interest charged on farm loans by small money-lenders is from 25 to 40 per cent.

The need of a flexible bank currency is experienced with peculiar force in the Philippines. At present the people have no paper currency except the notes of the Spanish-Filipino Bank, which are of small and decreasing volume, and such paper currency as may come to the islands in the pockets of visitors. How extensively paper would be employed if suitable agencies for issuing it should be supplied, may be seen from a comparison with the situation in Hong Kong, where, notwithstanding the large supply of Mexican silver in circulation, not less than 10,000,000 pesos in notes are in daily use.

Mr. Conant thinks that a certain guarantee of permanence in policy might be afforded by Congressional rules for the government of mortgage banks. The several institutions should have capitals of not less than $250,000, their loans on real estate should be limited, they should lend not more than 10 per cent. of their resources to any one person, and they should be subject to visitation and inspection. When he comes to take up the issue of bank currency, his report is much more radical in character. Mr. Conant proposes that the notes shall be issued by branches of our own national banks, under bond-deposit requirements much less rigid in character than those now in force. Of course all the usual reasons for recommending branch banks hold good for the Philippines. But there are two considerations which have special force there. In the first place, the issue of notes could not safely be intrusted to small independent institutions. Further, it is not to be expected that national banks of large capital will be established at Manila, for the restrictions under which they do business would not permit them to find a profitable field. If the notes are to be issued by national banks at all, therefore, they must be issued by branches of institutions in the United States. Mr. Conant recommends that the power be granted to national banks, established either in the Philippines or in the United States, to establish branches, both here and throughout the islands. He provides, however, that branches established in the United States shall be prohibited from discounting commercial bills and from making advances upon securities, when such transactions are carried on within the United States. Such restrictions would make branches in this country little more than agencies for conducting a foreign exchange business.

The system suggested for the issue of notes is a variant of the plans so often proposed in this country during recent years. Mr. Conant would have the notes issued only by banks with capitals of at least $500,000. Such institutions would be required to deposit the minimum $50,000 in bonds which is now required of national banks with capitals of $200,000 or more. Their notes would be made a first lien upon all the assets of the issuing bank, as well as upon the $50,000 of bonds, and would be limited in amount to 50 per cent. of the paid-up capital of the issuing bank. To make assurance trebly sure, a guarantee fund for the redemption of notes of failed

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banks should be established by a tax of ½ of 1 per cent. upon the circulation actually outstanding.

Whatever be done about establishing a system of banks in the Philippines, it is necessary to determine the status of the institutions which already exist there. These are at present principally controlled by three banks, two of which are owned in England and have branches in the islands, as well as elsewhere. The third is the Spanish-Filipino Bank in Manila. It claims by Spanish charter the exclusive privilege of note-issue until 1928. Its circulation is now about 2,100,000 pesos, though it is being gradually reduced. Its directors are willing to comply with proper regulations for the conduct of business. For these reasons, Mr. Conant recommends that this institution be permitted to maintain its note-issue on the conditions proposed for our own national banks, except that its circulation shall be allowed to expand to 100 per cent. of its capital instead of 50 per cent.

Mr. Conant's recommendations are unquestionably sound, though whether Congress can be induced to follow them is another question. We see no reason why those which relate to the introduction of the gold standard should not be adopted without delay.

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

It is plain that the Carnegie Institution is to be not a university, but an auxiliary to all the universities of the land. Its aim will be to initiate and foster pure research, leaving the investigator free to pursue his studies wherever his duties or his convenience may dictate. Assurance is given that all branches of scholarship will be impartially considered, that natural science will have no preference over the humanities, but that both will be recognized according to the ability and promise shown by their devotees. This great institution will, presumably, erect no stately pile of buildings, confer no high-sounding degrees, build up no imposing list of famous teachers to form its visible faculty. It will, on the contrary, aid in the search for truth only those who have passed the pupil's stage and are fit, themselves, to lead others in research. The greatness and generosity of the thought which prompts such a foundation will never find adequate material expression. Hundreds of investigators, each following the line of his preference and capacity, each adding to the stock of human knowledge, each measurably relieved of the hard material conditions which are almost inevitably the scholar's lot—this will be the Carnegie Institution in effective operation. The spectacle is only for the mind's eye, but it yields nothing in impressiveness to crowded lecture-rooms in stately buildings, and all the visible pomp and circumstance of university life.

Such, so far as one may gather from the brief and somewhat arid expression of intention given to the press as yet, is the ideal of the Carnegie Institution. To make it effective is a task of far greater delicacy and difficulty than that which confronts the administrator of a university. The university has its students under constant observation, while its professors are habitually under the stimulus of friendly association and professional rivalry. The Carnegie Institution will require a peculiar tact of its administrators—nothing less, indeed, than the ability to discern the promise of investigators who have only begun to display their quality, and the insight and diligence to select from the thousands of professed investigators in the country the scores or the hundreds who are worthy of the extraordinary support and encouragement offered by this unique institution.

That the distinguished scholars, statesmen, administrators, and men of affairs who make up the Board of Trustees fully realize the gravity of this problem may be unhesitatingly assumed. The public, however, may not so fully recognize the fact that the practical efficiency of the foundation will depend upon sub-committees of eminent specialists which must make the actual awards of fellowships, prizes, and subsidies. The Board of Trustees could not, if it would, examine the individual applications, or fairly weigh the credentials of aspirants in the remoter fields of scholarship. If, for example, a Western scholar or group of scholars should request support for a concordance of the major Buddhist writings—a desideratum in the Oriental field—it is certain that the Board of Trustees would lay the matter before the recognized leaders of Oriental study in this country. It may fairly be assumed, then, that, corresponding to the faculty of an ordinary university, the trustees of the Carnegie Institution will gradually appoint standing committees of noted specialists, to which the duty of actually choosing the beneficiaries and administering the subsidies for research will be intrusted. Such committees, it is almost needless to say, should be of the highest professional character. The appointment of a few advisers on the basis of academic notoriety, rather than of scholarship, would mean the cheapening of Mr. Carnegie's benefaction, so far as these scholars, falsely so called, had it in charge. It would be possible, indeed, through favoritism, or even through mere frivolity, largely to vitiate the usefulness of Mr. Carnegie's gift. His trustees cannot be too much on their guard against specious adventurers who sail under the colors of scholarship. While one might regret in passing that the officers of our older universities are not more largely represented on the Board, fortunately its composition gives every assurance that its members will not appoint to these vital positions on the advisory committees men unworthy of so great a trust.

The distinction of the Carnegie Institution over similar foundations lies chiefly in the power to initiate disinterested research. Other institutions—the academies, for example, both here and abroad—reward research successfully completed. The very useful work of publication and distribution of learned works is already undertaken by bodies like the various academies—the Smithsonian Institution, notably—and the university presses. Beyond these useful and dignified functions, the advisory committees of the Washington foundation will have the privilege of surveying minutely their respective fields, and deciding where lies the most pressing need and the greatest promise, with the assurance that no scholarly enterprise once advisedly undertaken will be cramped or deformed for lack of financial support. It would be foolish to forecast minutely the course of an institution which is so auspiciously founded and organized, but one may venture the prediction that a series of great co-operative investigations in the field of science, philosophy, letters, and art will be the most enduring monument of this "invisible university," as they seem to be its most logical reason for being.

POPULAR APPRECIATION OF SCIENTISTS.

Something of the mediæval notion of science as a variant of the black art seems to survive in certain popular modes of speaking of modern scientists. Marconi is a "magician"; Edison, a "wizard." Nor are these phrases purely chance-sown. They well express the real mental attitude of millions of honest folk towards science. To them it remains a region of wonder and mystery. Any miracle may come out of it any day. Tesla's fevered dreams are as credible as Marconi's sober and guarded forecasts. To one in this state of mind the scientist necessarily appears akin to the medicine-man. He is the thaumaturge of to-day. The multitude thinks of him as a being of quasi-supernal and romantic powers. This is, as we say, a distinct survival of the ancient conception of science, as it is figured for us by De Maistre under the image of a sort of Sibyl, with an unearthly air of the supernatural about her. There is in all this little resemblance to Huxley's definition of science as simply "organized and trained common sense."

It must be confessed, too, that the popular fondness is for the spectacular side of science. Its marvels, its theatric displays, its visible revolutions obviously wrought, are the only real triumphs of science in the judgment of the

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general. A name must have the luck to be hitched to some great discovery affecting every-day life if it is to be sure of a tablet in the impromptu hall of fame erected by the press and by the public which gets its ideas from the press alone. Of the true spirit of science, of the joys and ardors of its pursuit in silence and obscurity, there is not the pervasive appreciation which some rash praisers of the age assert. A bread-and-butter science, a kind of Caliban chained to useful offices, is held in sufficient and widespread admiration; but for scientific method as such, for the scientific worker who does not happen to emerge from his laboratory with a miracle in each hand, there is not the common and intelligent enthusiasm depicted in orations on modern progress. Even a great scientist and great benefactor of humanity in one, like Behring, may remain practically unknown and unhonored by the commonalty. It took the bestowal of the Nobel prize for science upon the discoverer of the anti-toxin treatment for diphtheria, to remind most people of so much as the name of one of the most rigorous scientists and triumphant students that ever lived.

At the same time, it is true, we believe, that there never was so general an impulse to pay honor to science, and do homage to the scientist, as exists at the present time. It is a part of our proud consciousness of superiority over the past. The advances which civilization has made are perceived to be largely the work of science, pure and applied, and we feel that we are but paying a just debt in exhibiting our delight to honor, even if somewhat unintelligently, the typical figures among our scientists. This was perhaps the most striking thing about the celebration in connection with Berthelot, the other day. All France was there represented, official and learned, and the ceremonies almost took on the character of a national fête. Yet the Minister of Public Instruction was obliged to confess, in his speech of felicitation, that he should have to leave it to others to say exactly what was Berthelot's title to scientific distinction. Indeed, to the outside public, the recondite researches of the great chemist must have been wholly caviare. He had not even had the good fortune, like Pasteur, to attach his name as a tag to processes of food-preservation or to treatment of disease. Never mind that, was the apparent reflection of the French public—Berthelot is a true savant; he is one of the glories of France, and the nation cannot do too much to honor him. It was a characteristic attitude of the time. Any civilized country would have felt and done the same.

In this large and vague way, the scientist no doubt has the modern world at his feet. The peoples are not ungrateful. They know their benefactors and their luminaries. Let it not be thought, however, that the man of science who boldly utters a conviction in conflict with popular belief will escape without rebuke or suffering. There was one discordant note in Berthelot's jubilee. He is a Positivist of the most thoroughgoing kind, and, in his modest little speech of acknowledgment, he made no concealment of his belief that he, in his old age, was merely a flickering light "on the point of being quenched in eternal night." It was to this confession of unfaith, we presume, that the *Journal des Débats* alluded when it said:

"It is to be regretted that, on the day when all the world, without distinction of opinion, was honoring in his person French science, he chose, by certain words of his discourse, to express personal convictions, and to emerge from the scientific domain to touch upon what concerns solely the individual conscience."

We say nothing of the justice of this criticism. We cite it simply to show the limits which are still put upon the acclaim awarded the scientist by the modern world. Beyond them he steps at his peril. If, like Huxley, he feels himself the discoverer of moral and religious, as well as scientific, truth, and, in uttering it, does so in his spirit of wishing that his epitaph might be, "He tried to help the people," he has to lay aside the authority of the savant, and take his buffeting like an ordinary polemic. Luckily for their work, few scientists feel, as Huxley did, that woe will be upon them if they preach not their gospel. They are, no doubt, happier, and probably are more useful, when they are content, like Darwin, slowly to instruct those who do preach. And we think that the hortatory instinct of science—especially when it is *ultra crepidam*—is abating as the years pass by. It is not so "earnest" as it used to be, in Bagehot's sense of the Englishman's native earnestness—that is, a vehement desire to make all the world think just as he does. To let knowledge do its own work, all in good time, is now, we think, the commoner resolve of the scientist. And he has come to see, too, that his guesses at the great riddles of existence may be no better than another man's; and that, in any case, he would do well to take the poet's advice, and

"Note not the pigment the while that the painting determines humanity's joy and pain."

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

WASHINGTON, January 1, 1902.

In point of numbers, the Washington meeting of the American Historical Association, December 27-31, was one of the most successful ever held. Of course, comparatively few of the sixteen hundred members of the Association will ever gather at any one place, however central or interesting the place may be; but the attendance this year was especially gratifying. The experiment of holding over Sunday was tried this year for the first time, and while the rain kept all but the most venturesome indoors, the effect of including the extra day was certainly not shown in any decrease of attendance the following week, or in any complaint at the added time and expense. As was the case last year, the American Economic Association held its meeting in Washington simultaneously, two sessions taking the form of joint meetings of the two bodies.

The opening session, on Friday evening, was made notable by the address of the President, Charles Francis Adams. Relying upon "leave to print" for the complete exposition of his ideas, Mr. Adams chose to present informally and without notes an epitome of what he had written. His thesis, in substance, was the proposition that the Association, as the great organized historical body in the United States, might well undertake to pronounce upon the merits of some of the great political questions which from time to time stir the country, and, by settling once for all the facts in the case, help to remove such issues from the field of controversy and give them definitive settlement. As illustrations, Mr. Adams adduced the questions of slavery, the tariff, currency, Trusts, and Imperialism as the chief of those which had engrossed public attention within his own memory, and pointed out that to none of them had historical scholarship contributed at the time much of anything in the way of solution. The contention, vigorously and entertainingly put, was not, of course, new, nor, we may add, were its inherent difficulties greatly lessened by Mr. Adams's forcible discussion. If all citizens were as patriotic as they are well-informed, or if political campaigns turned upon facts rather than upon sentiment and machinery, there might be a place for the public meeting which Mr. Adams suggested should be held by the Association in every Presidential campaign; but it is unlikely that the Association will feel that its usefulness lies in that direction. It is significant, in this connection, that the plan for a monographic history of America which was recommended by the council last year, and referred back for further consideration, was this year reported upon adversely; the main reason for the change of heart being, it was understood, the practically unanimous feeling of the council that the Association would be going beyond its province if it were to put its official imprimatur on such a work, however valuable the work might be.

The second joint session, on Monday evening, brought out an extremely interesting paper by Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell of Harvard, on the comparative amount of party legislation in the House of Commons, Congress, and certain State Legislatures. Some colored diagrams, prepared with extraordinary labor, were peculiarly suggestive as illustrating the possible usefulness of graphic statistics in this field, though the results as a whole were too fragmentary to make generalization from them safe. A highly condensed paper by Professor Seligman of Columbia, on "Historical Materialism and the Economic Interpretation of History," called out a keen reply from Professor Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania, who objected to "interpreting" history, whether by economic or other standards, save after exhaustive study of

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the facts, while for large reaches of the subject the insufficiency of assured data formed, in his opinion, a bar to "interpretation" at all. The discussion, though highly entertaining, was one-sided, neither aspect of the case being stated in a well-balanced way, though it served to call attention to the mischief which has been wrought by scholars who, rating the economic aspects of things as of most worth, have assumed to find therein explanations which, unfortunately, do not always bear rigid historical examination.

The other session of most general interest was undoubtedly that of Saturday morning, devoted to the subject of public records and record-keeping. A paper by Professor Salmon of Vassar, on an American School of Historical Studies at Rome, was unimportant, but the one by Mr. Robert T. Swan, the Massachusetts Records Commissioner, on the work of his office, was a remarkable summing up of the solid results of ten years of well-directed effort. Thanks to Mr. Swan, the historian can now expect, with some confidence, to find in the towns and cities of Massachusetts, in available shape, the records in which alone the course of institutional development in the colony and State is to be studied; and he cannot do this as yet in any other State. Professor Burr of Cornell gave a summary account of the principal classes of European archives, together with useful practical suggestions for those proposing to undertake historical researches among them; and Mr. Herbert Putnam outlined the great work which the Library of Congress is carrying on in the interest of historical investigation. By the courtesy of Mr. Putnam, the session was held at the Library, which was opened on the occasion for special inspection, and the members of the Association were entertained there at luncheon.

Of the other papers read, the most important, perhaps, were those of Professor Robinson of Columbia, on recent literature of the Reformation, notable for its praise of Jansen; and of Professor Emerton of Harvard, on the chronology of Erasmus's letters. The final session, on Southern history, was full of promise for the continued spread of sound historical work in the South. A much-anticipated paper by Professor Turner of the University of Wisconsin, on the diplomatic antecedents of the Louisiana purchase, was, in the absence of the author, not read. The church-history section continues to languish, a mere handful of people being in attendance. With the amount of good work in church history now being done in this country, it would seem as though a session of the Association devoted to the subject ought to be able to maintain itself with vigor; but, at the present rate of decline, the section, formally a part of the programme, seems threatened with extinction. In most of the sessions there was a lack of informal discussion, the so-called discussion which appeared on the programme generally resolving itself into another paper of ten minutes instead of twenty in length.

Thanks to the vigorous policy of the Council and the wise management of the Association's limited funds, the manifold activities of the Association continue to flourish. Probably no learned society in the United States is carrying on so many important undertakings. Socially, the Washington meeting was less beset with formal "functions" than recent ones have been, but the opportunity for the cultivation of personal acquaintance was all the greater in consequence, and was favorably commented upon. Unfortunately, the meetings do not yet offer much in social ways to women, although the women members are numerous; nor is Canada, although included in the field of the Association, much represented. A meeting at Toronto or Montreal would doubtless go far to solve the latter problem, but the solution of the former has not yet been found. The Association meets next year at Philadelphia, with Capt. A. T. Mahan as President.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION IN WASHINGTON.

January 6, 1902.

All things considered, it is doubtful whether the American Economic Association has ever had a more satisfactory session than the fourteenth annual meeting held in Washington on December 27-30. The programme was not particularly brilliant, there was no extraordinary incident, but, in the general qualities that constitute a successful meeting—representative attendance, sustained interest, social intercourse—the days in Washington left nothing to be desired. The meeting was, indeed, not without its sad note—a sense of loss that came to many of those present from the absence of familiar faces. The distressing deaths of Profs. Richmond Mayo-Smith of Columbia and Sidney Sherwood of Johns Hopkins add to the long list of economists cut off in the very prime of scientific manhood. President Hadley's incisive criticisms would have been a welcome contribution to more than one debate. Professor Taussig's temporary absence, Professor Ashley's departure to his Birmingham post, Professor Jenks's studies in the Far East, and Dr. Rowe's and Mr. Willoughby's activities in Porto Rico were all noted, in this connection, with regret. Yet to him who contrasted the meeting with the one last held in Washington, eleven years ago, the evidence was overwhelming as to how bravely the torch is being passed on. Both in numbers and in influence the economic circle is growing. Still far removed from the class whom the lamented Herbert B. Adams was fond of describing as "alte Herren," the little group of American economists who returned to this country some thirty years ago, with the substantial equipment of European scholarship, to find only grudging academic recognition, could look about and behold at least two distinct generations—their pupils and their pupils' pupils—toiling manfully where only solitary workers long struggled.

The opening session of the meeting was held on Friday evening with the American Historical Association, and was devoted to the presidential addresses. For the economists, President Ely presented a most suggestive paper on "Industrial Liberty." He contrasted the eighteenth-century concept, that industrial liberty was something to be achieved by negative political action, with the modern view that true liberty means the expression of positive powers of the individual, and that it can be reached only after a long and arduous constructive process. Liberty cannot be an absolute ideal, because authority is needed in society in order to secure the harmonious coöperation of its various elements, and without social authority we could have no production of wealth, and we should lack the material basis of that large and positive liberty which enables us to employ our faculties in the common service. This social authority rests, for the most part, upon the great institutions of society—property, vested interests, contract, and personal conditions. To only a limited extent is there a direct political basis for the authority whereby one man brings into harmonious coöperation other men, in the work of production. The basis of social authority is, for the most part, institutional. On the other hand, Socialism furnishes us with no sufficient ideal of industrial liberty. Going to the other extreme from anarchy, it would find a political basis for that social authority through which the industrial coöperation of men is effected. It would limit the range of free choice, and restrict liberty, although to a less degree than anarchy. The true ideal lies midway between anarchy and Socialism, and may be termed the principle of social solidarity. According to this principle, the great institutions of society must be conserved, but developed in the interests of liberty positively conceived. There must be a carefully elaborated and wisely executed regulation of economic relations.

With no less interest but with perceptibly greater dissent, the economists heard the fluent address of President Charles Francis Adams of the Historical Association upon "An Undeveloped Function." Animated, apparently, by the sentiment of the dear old lady who discouraged the study of ancient history upon the ground that we should "let bygones be bygones," President Adams urged a livelier interest on the part of scholars in that politics which is present history, and himself set an unmistakable example by a discussion, as original as it was unhesitating, of the two conspicuous problems of the day—Trusts and Imperialism. At a subsequent session of the meeting, historical sentiment paid its respects in no uncertain tones to the economic interpreters of history. But the castigated only chuckled, for examples of the historical interpretation of economics were still a refreshing memory.

International trade was the general topic of the second session, with papers by Mr. Brooks Adams and Mr. Worthington C. Ford, and discussion by Mr. George E. Roberts, Mr. Charles A. Conant, and Professor Emery. Mr. Adams undertook to analyze the meaning of the recent expansion of the foreign trade of the United States, and found the key in a law of civilization in accordance with which "the centre of human society is shifting very rapidly, the seat of mineral production and of commercial exchanges is migrating westward, the lines of transportation are straightening to correspond, and London is ceasing to be the universal mart." If the United States push her consequent advantages home and drive her rivals to extremity, she appears to lie open to two methods of attack. European nations, singly or in combination, may attempt commercial exclusion somewhat on the principle on which Napoleon acted against England; or they may adopt a policy which will lead to war, such, for example, as dis-

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regarding the Monroe Doctrine. In illuminating the future and in marking the path toward danger, lies the opportunity of modern economic inquiry.

Mr. Ford's message was less alarming. A careful review of the more important incidents connected with the recent experience of the leading nations of Europe in tariffs and commercial treaties, leads to the conclusion that a combination among European nations against the commercial interests of the United States is a safely remote possibility. "There are too many oppositions to be overcome, too many competing interests to be harmonized, too many political considerations to be altered, to allow a general consensus of opinion and action." Where mischief may be done is in the isolated action of each nation of Europe against the trade of the United States. The damage to our interests may be all the greater because of the conscious imitation of regulation by more than one Power. To conciliate opposition by wise concession is the part of true statesmanship; to offer a better use of our undeniably great resources is the true economic policy of the United States, and this betterment cannot be obtained by wilfully closing the best markets to our profits. The tariff should not be an implement of offence, of commercial war, but one of revenue and commercial peace.

Of very great significance was the fact that economic theory was less prominent in the programme than ever before. Saturday afternoon's session was nominally devoted to theory, but both Professor Carver's paper on "Some Theoretical Possibilities of a Protective Tariff" and Professor Tuttle's study of "The Position of the Workman in the Light of Economic Progress" stood in as immediate relation to applied as to theoretical economics. Dr. Carver attempted to demonstrate, by characteristically acute reasoning, (1) that a tariff duty is not necessarily paid by the home consumer; (2) that a protective tariff may be so framed as to raise wages; (3) that a protective tariff may be so framed as to attract labor and capital from the less productive into the more productive industries—judged from the standpoint of the community rather than that of the individual business man. Professor Tuttle urged the larger recognition of the laborer's property right in industry, and suggested the possibility of State indemnification for labor discharge due to industrial invention. The study of the labor problem thus introduced was continued in the evening session by Mr. Alfred H. Stone's entertaining paper on "The Negro in the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta," and by Mr. Herman Justi's detailed account of "Conciliation and Arbitration among Miners in Illinois," with discussion by Mr. L. G. Powers of the Census Office and Hon. Carroll D. Wright of the Department of Labor.

Monday afternoon was devoted to public finance. The opening paper was one of the most interesting of the meeting, "Porto Rican Finance: A Comparative Study of Spanish and American Systems of Colonial Finance," by Dr. T. S. Adams of the University of Wisconsin, who, as assistant to the Treasurer of Porto Rico, had rendered important service in the financial reorganization of the island. Dr. Adams's paper was a critical account of the financial methods prevailing in Porto Rico prior to the American occupation, and of the changes introduced during the period of American military government, together with an outline of the comprehensive reconstruction effected under civil rule. The Americanization of Porto Rico, Dr. Adams summarized, has meant, from the fiscal viewpoint, first, a substantial reduction in the burden of taxation; second, a simplification of the system of taxation; third, a relative increase in the taxation of accumulated property as opposed to the sale, consumption, and transfer of property; and, finally, a shifting of the centre of gravity of the consumption taxes from the consumer of codfish and pork to the consumer of rum and tobacco. "Whether the two classes of consumers are different or not," he concluded, "is, I must confess, a doubtful question. It is to be hoped, however, that under the present arrangement the peon will get a little more codfish and a little less rum."

In the discussion which followed, Professor Hollander of Johns Hopkins, late Treasurer of the island, after noting the mutual obligation in successful financiering of the financial theorist and the financial administrator, reported as to the actual working of the new revenue system. For the five months ending November 30, 1901, the ordinary receipts of the insular treasury have been $1,000,542.62. The ordinary expenditures for the same period have been $881,976.64, making an excess of receipts over expenditures of $118,565.98. Or, comparing actual with estimated receipts, it appears that, in each of the three essential sources of insular revenue, the actual receipts have justified the budgetary estimates, and in two cases by comfortable margins. In financial matters five months constitute an insufficient period for safe prophecy as to the results of a twelvemonth; but, considering the facts at hand and the tendencies now evident, there seems full reason for supposing that, with no disturbing factor or unexpected occurrence, the aggregate budgetary estimate for the fiscal year will be safely realized. It would be ridiculous to suppose that all further occasion for financial legislation in Porto Rico has been removed. But it is only time, experience, and specific conditions that will clearly indicate where and when—without any departure from fundamental principles—omission, amendment, or addition is desirable. In any event, it seems no unwarranted optimism to believe that, both in subjective appreciation and in objective fact, a secure and enduring financial basis has been laid.

The Committee on Uniform Municipal Accounts and Statistics, through its Chairman, Mr. M. N. Baker, brought the report of 1900 again before the attention of the Association. In the year which has elapsed, the Committee reported, it has become generally accepted that the interests of good municipal government and the intelligent solution of certain mooted questions of municipal policy demand that municipal statistics be collected and published, and that such statistics, to be of prime service, must be based on uniform municipal accounting. The prior recommendations of the Committee relating to State boards of municipal control and the publication of State summaries of local activities, it was added, might be left with advantage until the movement obtained more definite shape and greater force. The annual summary of the United States Department of Labor was commended, and the question was raised as to what the present Census Office might undertake with advantage in the way of municipal statistics. A similar committee has been appointed by the National Municipal League, and is coöperating in the attempt to formulate a general system of uniform municipal accounting and in the collection of statistical summaries of municipal activities.

The active discussion of the Committee's statement by Mr. Charles E. Curtis of New Haven, Dr. Roland P. Falkner of the Library of Congress, Dr. Edward M. Hartwell of the Boston Statistical Department, clearly illustrated the dependence of any systematic study of local finances in the United States upon the prior collection of statistical and descriptive material. It is absolutely certain that no one who has lacked opportunity to acquaint himself by actual experience can realize adequately the crude, chaotic condition of the public records of the ordinary American city, and the difficulties and embarrassments encountered by the investigator in studying the situation and by the legislator in improving it. Some evidence of this is afforded by Professor Clow's recent monograph on the city budget, in which, with no small industry and persistence, a path has been blazed in a dense financial wilderness. The keynote of the debate was, however, progressive effort; and emphasis was laid upon the fact that, while the agitation for uniform municipal accounting might very properly be continued, yet earlier results of no small consequence might be expected from the collection of statistical summaries, projected or in progress by public agencies.

The final session of the meeting was held on Monday evening, again jointly with the American Historical Association. The economists' contribution to the programme was a thoughtful paper by Professor Seligman of Columbia, on "The Economic Interpretation of History." Critical examination was made of the successive objections commonly urged against the doctrine of "historic materialism": First, that the theory of economic interpretation is a fatalistic theory; second, that it rests on the assumption of historical laws whose very existence is open to question; third, that it is socialistic; fourth, that it neglects the ethical and spiritual forces of history; fifth, that it leads to absurd exaggerations. Professor Seligman's reasonable conclusion was that, as a philosophical doctrine of universal validity, the theory of historical materialism can no longer be successfully defended. But, in the narrower sense of economic interpretation of history—in the sense, namely, that the economic factor has been of the utmost importance in history, and that the historical factor must be reckoned with in economics—the theory has been and still is of considerable significance. Professor Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania discussed the paper entertainingly, and characterized economic interpretation as misleading, because of its *a-priori* method, and as premature because more complete historical writing must precede any effort at intelligent interpretation.

The meetings of the Council disclosed a

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gratifying state of affairs in the internal economy of the Association; the increase of membership during President Ely's administration being especially encouraging. For the ensuing year, Professor Seligman succeeds to the presidency, Professor Fetter becomes permanent instead of acting Secretary, and Professor Hollander takes the chairmanship of the Publication Committee.

A GLIMPSE OF CUBA.

December, 1901.

It is perhaps owing to our habit of looking at the West Indies on maps which cover a great area, that the visitor who travels through the island is surprised to find it so big. It is larger than Pennsylvania or Louisiana, almost as large as England, and much bigger than all the other West India islands put together. In so wide an area there are diversities of physical character and aspect so numerous that no tourist, unless he had spent many months in journeying to and fro through the country—a slow process where railways are few and roads bad or wanting—could undertake to render a general account of it. But a few general impressions may be worth giving, so scanty is the knowledge which most of us have about the island whose fate now lies in the hands of Congress.

Broadly speaking, it is a country pleasing to the eye and often very pretty. It is verdant, being for the most part well watered; and though there are large tracts of nearly level ground, one is seldom out of sight of some hill sufficient to relieve the monotony of a flat. Where there are pastures, the grass is luxuriant. Where there are woods, the trees have the rich luxuriance of the tropics. Many bear clustered flowers, others support climbing plants gay with brilliant blossoms. The most romantic regions are to be found in the southeast, where some of the mountains reach a height of eight thousand feet—a height all the more imposing because several of the highest tops rise not far from the sea, and thus display the full stateliness of their proportions. But, both in the west end of the island and in other places here and there through it, there are fine groups of hills, whose boldness of line and profusion of wood make them beautiful objects. Some parts of the south coast, such as that which stretches east and west from the city of Santiago de Cuba, are specially charming, for here are bold cliffs and rock-encircled bays, with forest slopes above. In other places the shore is bordered by a fringe of coral isles, usually called cays, all thickly wooded, through which the coasting steamers thread their way, happy in having no longer to fear the buccaneers, or, in later days, the coast pirates, who found in this maze of islets safe retreats whence they could issue to pounce upon a passing vessel.

It is also a healthy country. The yellow fever which used to give it a bad name has now been discovered to be a preventible disease. Already the efforts of the American administration have, for the moment, practically stamped it out in Havana and Santiago; and there is reason to hope that if the measures now taken are rigorously maintained, this deliverance will be permanent. Malarial fevers occur in some places, but are apparently less frequent and formidable than on the Gulf coast of the United States and of Mexico. Now that they too have been ascertained to be mainly, if not wholly, due to infection through a mosquito, they too may be largely averted. Almost everywhere one is struck by the freshness of the air, which is far more agreeable and invigorating than that of Florida or southern Alabama. One has a sense in the aspect of the sky and the feel of the breeze of being within reach of the sea; and there are indeed few parts of the island which are more than forty miles from salt water. Thus the heat, having regard to the latitude (for nearly the whole of Cuba lies south of the Tropic of Cancer), is moderate and bearable. Sunstroke is said to be extremely rare.

Further, it is a naturally rich country. In the plains and undulating regions the soil is usually deep and fertile; and the rains of the hotter months (for there is no very great difference between the temperatures of summer and winter) are sufficient to make artificial irrigation needless, except in comparatively few places. Nearly every tropical or sub-tropical crop can be grown in one district or another. There are immense stretches of pasture-land, covered by luxuriant grass. There are vast forest tracts, chiefly on the mountains, some of which remain almost unexplored to this day, because the cost of transportation in regions ill supplied with roads or railways has made it not worth while to cut the wood. There are mines of iron, copper, and manganese, and there may well be other minerals also, for the resources of the island have been very imperfectly ascertained. Few countries make upon the passing traveller a stronger impression of great natural wealth.

But Cuba is an empty country. In its 46,000 square miles there are only some 1,600,000 inhabitants, against 6,000,000 in Pennsylvania. Porto Rico, with only 3,600 square miles, is less than one-twelfth in size, but has about half as large a population. One is everywhere struck by the fewness of the inhabitants. It is not only that vast tracts of mountain and forest remain in their primitive wildness. Even level and open regions, fit for village or pasture, are practically a solitude, with only a few negro huts here and there. One sees deep-soiled plains without sugar-plantations, luxuriant meadows and grassy hillsides without cattle. This desolation is no doubt partly due to the too protracted insurrections, in which many plantations were laid waste, many sugar-factories destroyed, and nearly all the cattle slaughtered. But, even before war came in to devastate the land, the country must have had a population far beneath that which it could support. Agriculture and stock-keeping would alone, without counting mining or any kind of manufactures, provide employment and food for at least five millions of persons. There is only one considerable city, Havana; and only three or four others with populations exceeding thirty thousand, all of them on the coast. The interior has scarce anything to show but wretched villages composed of the huts of colored people.

How far this desolate condition of a land which nature has blessed is due to Spanish misgovernment, how far to the inferior quality of the inhabitants, it would need many pages to discuss. That there was deplorable and long-continued misgovernment, and that the present inhabitants are slack and backward, has been amply known to all the world. The presence of a large number of negroes, and the existence of slavery (though in no very harsh form) down to a recent date, account for a good deal of slackness in the people; and this fault was intensified by misgovernment, while it tended to perpetuate that misgovernment itself, for a more energetic race would not have so long borne with the corruption and maladministration of Spanish officials. At present one of the crying wants of the country is more labor and better labor. The colored population seems to occupy a sort of middle place between the intelligent and industrious negroes of Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Alabama and the half-savage negroes of Hayti. They are not sunk deep in sloth and superstition, but they are not progressive; and if Cuba is to become prosperous, it will hardly be through them. The hopes of the better class of Cubans are chiefly fixed upon immigration from old Spain. This immigration is now proceeding at a great pace, but, unfortunately, the immigrants, who are mostly thrifty and hardworking fellows from the northern provinces of Spain, do not generally bring women with them, so it is feared that they will, through intermarriage with the blacks and half-breeds they find in the island, decline in a generation or two nearer to the level of that inferior element. Besides, it is hard for any European race, even for a race from southern Europe, to retain its vigor of body and mind under a tropical climate. It will be interesting to see what the results are; but those results can hardly be estimated before the end of the century on which we are now entering.

There is also another impression which the visitor receives and by which he is startled: Cuba is not a good country for insurrections. Except in the east, in parts of the southern coast, and in a few districts of the west, the country is generally pretty open and level and comparatively easy for the movement of regular troops, and comparatively unfavorable to insurgent bands. It is true that the source and the strength of the rebels lay in the mountainous and forest-clad east, where the negro population is largest. (The bands were chiefly composed of negroes, though many of the leaders were whites or mulattoes.) But in the last rebellion the rebel bands were practically in command of the level and undulating parts of the interior to the south and southeast of Havana and Matanzas, though it ought to have been easy for the Spaniards to hold these districts. The Spanish Government had a vastly preponderating force, exceeding (as one is told) 200,000 men, while the strength of the insurgent bands, who were, moreover, armed with inferior weapons, seems never to have reached 30,000 at any one time. Besides, the Spaniards had complete command of the sea—an enormous advantage in a country with bad roads, and most of which lies within thirty or forty miles of the coast. These facts make it all the more extraordinary that the two great insurrections should not each of them have been quelled within a few months, or at any rate driven into the less accessible parts of the island. People in Cuba explain the phenomenon by saying that the Spanish officers, or at any

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rate some important persons among them, did not really wish to stamp out the insurrection, whose continuance gave them opportunities of enriching themselves through extra pay and through contracts for military stores and supplies of various kinds. If this be true, these officers overplayed their game with a characteristic want of foresight, for any one might have predicted from the beginning of 1897, if not earlier, that foreign intervention was approaching. It is, at any rate, clear, that, if the Spanish officials really wished to suppress the insurrection, there must have been extraordinary incapacity and probably a great deal of corruption among them, for the balance of military strength was altogether in their favor, and a large part of the population was always on their side.

During the last few months Cuba—that is to say, the intelligent part of the Cuban population, and especially those who have something to lose or to gain—has been agitated by two questions: the promised departure of the American administrators and the promised arrival of Sir William Van Horne, the Canadian railway magnate, who has undertaken a large scheme for the construction of a trunk line through the east and east-central parts of the island. These two events are intimately connected, for with the withdrawal of American administration a new chapter in Cuban history will open, and no one knows what sort of government will be created, what sort of order will be kept, what sort of facilities for agricultural and commercial development will be provided. Yet it is largely upon these things that the success of railway schemes must depend. Whatever opinions any one may hold as to the need for American intervention in 1898, or as to the policy which Congress and the Executive have followed since then, there ought not to be any difference of opinion as to the admirable spirit in which Gen. Wood and his principal subordinates have discharged their difficult task, or as to the substantial value of the work they have done for Cuba. But these topics are too large to be entered on at the end of a letter.

Correspondence.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, T. W. Balch, states that there is nothing to arbitrate in the dispute between Canada and the United States over the boundary between Alaska and our northwest territories. Whether this is so may be learned from the notes exchanged between the United Kingdom and the United States upon the subject up to and including those of October 20, 1899, fixing a provisional boundary. Here it will be found that the problem at issue involves the interpretation of a treaty made between England and Russia in 1825, whose terms are ambiguous, requiring for their true construction a consideration of the state of geographical knowledge at the time the document was signed, a reference to the correspondence which led up to it, and the application of well-known principles of international law.

Article iii. of the treaty provided that, from a certain point at 56 degrees north latitude, "the line of demarcation shall follow the crest of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as its point of intersection with the 141st degree of west longitude." The whole region is highly mountainous, and the question arises, what are the mountains whose crest is to be followed?

Article iv., section 2, provides that where the crest of the mountains is more than ten miles from the shore, the line shall be drawn parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, but never to be more than ten marine leagues from it. Upon this ground the United States raises the contention that the boundary is intended to be throughout not less than thirty miles from the ocean, whereas the language of the document is "not more than."

Further, the question arises, what is the "coast" spoken of? In the negotiations which preceded the treaty of 1825, the Russian plenipotentiaries distinguished between the "coast" of the main ocean and the shores of inlets. Canada takes her stand upon the sense in which the term was used by those who drew up the treaty. Is that position so clearly wrong that it is not even open to argument?

Your correspondent says: "The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount St. Elias down to the Portland Canal." Why, then, is the United States unwilling to submit its claims to an impartial tribunal?

Canada sought to have this frontier ascertained in 1872, shortly after the purchase of Alaska by the United States, but without success, although Hamilton Fish, the Secretary of State, was favorable. In 1892 an international survey commission was appointed to ascertain facts and data, and the commission made a joint report on December 31, 1895, accompanied with elaborate maps and photographic views. Up to this time Vancouver's maps, made in 1792, were the standard and only original authority, except that the shores of the Lynn Canal had been surveyed in 1881. In 1898-99 the British delegates to the International Commission, including Lord Herschell, offered certain terms to the United States, and, in the event of these not being acceptable, they expressed their willingness to refer the whole question to arbitration on the lines of the Venezuela boundary treaty. That treaty provided that adverse holding for fifty years should make a good title, and also that such effect should be given to occupation for less than fifty years as reason, justice, the principles of international law, and the equities of the case required. The United States Commissioners refused both offers, making, however, a counter-proposal that, in the event of their consenting to arbitration, it should be provided beforehand that the settlements on tidewater made on the authority of the United States should continue to be American territory, even though they might prove to be on the British side of the line. In other words, they demanded that Canada should yield her rights as a preliminary condition to having those rights determined.

The claims put forward by Canada are made in good faith, and based upon grounds which, if disputable, are none the less solid. The issue is precisely of the kind to which arbitration is suitable. Yet the United States, which insisted upon arbitration in the Venezuela boundary difficulty, refuses it here, acts as judge and advocate in its own cause, and decides that there is "nothing to arbitrate."

R. W. Shannon.

Ottawa, Canada, January 11, 1902.

STERNE'S INFLUENCE IN FRANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reviewing last week (January 9) the December meeting of the Modern Language Association, "N. M." says: "Professor Baldwin showed that the influence of Sterne's works upon French literature had been much underestimated." This conclusion would hardly be possible, in view of the studies of M. Texte. At any rate, my point was, that the influence of Sterne in France, being the influence almost exclusively of 'Tristram Shandy,' and leading only to a certain kind of imitation, could hardly be called literary. Of Sterne's best art, the 'Sentimental Journey,' the only direct literary influence known to me, in spite of the many French translations, is the 'Voyage autour de ma Chambre' of Xavier de Maistre. Instead of "underestimated," therefore, the word should be *misinterpreted*. I shall be obliged by this correction—the more, if it lead to any suggestion of further evidence for or against my actual conclusion.

Charles Sears Baldwin.

Yale University, January 11, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. Clarke Conwell, The Elston Press, Pelham Road, New Rochelle, N. Y., will publish directly 'The Art and Craft of Printing,' by William Morris, being a complete record of Morris's speeches and writings on this theme and his work at the Kelmscott Press, with reproductions of many ornaments and sample pages. Mr. Conwell also announces as in press Morris's 'Some Notes on Early Woodcut Books.'

A study of Robespierre, by Hilaire Belloc; 'The Apostles' Creed: Its Origin, its Purpose, and its Historical Interpretation,' by Dr. Arthur C. McGiffert; and 'Through Science to Faith,' by Dr. Newman Smyth, are forthcoming from Charles Scribner's Sons.

D. Appleton & Co. open, this month, their "World Series" with 'Britain and the British Seas,' by H. J. Mackinder; and will also have ready 'Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression,' by Theodore E. Burton.

'The Life of a Century: 1800 to 1900,' by Edwin Hodder (London: Newnes; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), is a popular compilation, occupied mainly with the history and development of the British Empire during the period which it covers. Its record of mechanical progress takes a wider range, including even an account of the steel skyscrapers of New York. The book makes no pretension to philosophical or literary value, but it is likely to answer well enough its purpose of supplying "a readable narrative," and it is, in the main, accurate, though not quite free from political partisanship. It contains over five hundred illustrations.

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The second volume of Mr. Rhees's documentary History of the Smithsonian Institution, of which we recently noticed volume i., has appeared. It contains papers connected with the Fiftieth to the Fifty-fifth Congresses, 1887-1899, and forms a volume of more than 800 pages, closing with a list of the official members of the "Establishment" and a copious index. Among the matters treated, of especial public interest are the establishment of the National Zoological Park and the Astrophysical Observatory. Altogether the two volumes preserve in convenient form a mass of information as to the inception and growth of a unique scientific institution, which will be of permanent value to those interested either in the functions of our Government, the attitude of public men towards science, or the evolution of scientific agencies.

'The Latin Quarter' is the title by which the translators seek to represent Mürger's 'Scènes de la vie de Bohème' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The inevitable disappearance, in translation, of much of the characteristic humor and wit serves to emphasize the sordid side of the life depicted; here and there familiar expressions have been misunderstood. At the opening of chapter xiii., Colline was eager to see his speculations *en caractère Cicéro*, that is, in the special type so called; the phrase has no reference to the *Ciceronic* quality of Colline's style, as the translator puts it. Musette's projected marriage draws from Rodolphe the natural exclamation, "Contre qui, Seigneur?" feebly and incorrectly rendered in "To whom, my lord?" Mr. Arthur Symons's introduction is not indispensable.

Translations of Alphonse Daudet's 'Lettres de Mon Moulin' and 'Contes du Lundi' have been added to the series of "Little Masterpieces" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). In the former it may be noted that "Il les perdait toutes de la même façon" does not mean "He lost them *in all kinds of ways*" (p. 18). Again, by the sot who "si souvent secouait les puces à sa pauvre Clairon," Daudet colloquially describes a wife-beater, not a man who ungallantly "shook his fleas on his poor Clairette." The introduction to the 'Contes' contains a few questionable literary statements, such as that "Daudet was, *in a certain sense*, the pioneer of the modern Short Story in France."

To the discussion of university reorganization, in its bearings on the substitution of modern languages for the classics, M. Gustave Lanson contributed several articles in the *Figaro*, now collected in book form, under the title, 'L'Université et la Société Moderne' (Paris: Armand Colin). The question being practically settled, the chief interest of this little volume rests rather on the clear common-sense views of its author than on its value as a factor in the decisions. But, for unconventionality of opinion, M. Lanson is certainly remarkable among the disputants. He does not hesitate to tell his countrymen of the bias given to French culture through excess of literary training; and he also insists that modern languages, in order to justify their presence among higher studies, must reject scholastic, for strictly practical, methods.

A second attempt this season to improve on Mother Goose, 'Mother Goose's Menagerie,' by Carolyn Wells, with colored illustrations by Peter Newell (Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.), proves equally futile with the first. Miss Wells's ear for rhythm is insufficient for her ambitious metres, and her jests are often much above her audience. Mr. Newell's designs are narrowly mannered, but have some drollery and are better than the jingles.

Dodd, Mead & Co. issue in pamphlet form a 'Bibliography of the First Editions in Book Form of the Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson.' The limitation expressed in the title is, we think, regrettable, for a little more diligence would have added to the list the place of first publication of every poem of Tennyson's. But perhaps it was too much to expect that both the student of literary history and the collector should be regarded in a work of this character. Bibliographically, the work seems to be thoroughly done, being more complete than any previous work in this field. The descriptions are full and accurate, and the title-pages of the most notable issues are reproduced. The primary object of the work is to describe accurately a complete series of Tennyson first editions which Dodd, Mead & Co. have gradually brought together and now offer for sale. But since the list grew to be, for collectors' purposes, a complete bibliography of Tennyson, it is issued in two editions of 250 and 56 copies respectively.

We cannot praise the technical quality of Professor Du Bois's "Select Bibliography of the American Negro, for General Readers," one of the Atlanta University publications. "Explicit suggestions and criticisms are invited" on the title-page, and we will remark that the classification is quite erratic, the sub-arrangement neither alphabetical nor geographical, the typographical errors too numerous—"F. J. May" for Samuel J., "Nicholay and Hay" for Nicolay—the references far too vague, *e. g.*, "*Nation*, xxviii." Why should Olive Schreiner's 'Trooper Peter Halket in Mashonaland' be found here? Why should works on fugitive slaves and the Underground Railroad be classed under "Emancipation," being ante-bellum in theme; and the Life of Garrison be placed under the same rubric and not under the preceding one, "Abolition Movement?" This well-meant little pamphlet betrays inexperience and a mind not orderly.

The "Annual List" of new and important books added to the Boston Public Library contains 206 pages of titles classified under 22 subjects. It makes a handy reference chronicle of the English literature of the past year on nearly every conceivable topic. In addition to the synopsis of classification, there is an index of biographies arranged alphabetically by subjects.

The London *Publishers' Circular* for December 21, 1901, contains a complete exposure of the latest Bacon-Shakspere cypherer, viz., Mrs. E. W. Gallup. This lady, having found the key, has extracted a prose translation of Homer's Iliad hidden in cypher by Bacon in Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy.' Mr. R. B. Marston, editor of the *Circular*, shows, with the aid of the deadly parallel column, that Bacon relied, then, mainly on Pope's translation nearly a century before it was published. This beats the feat of Shaksperizing all hollow. True, however, to his old instinct of concealment, Bacon altered Pope's "thirty sable vessels" into "thirty sable shippes," and "Messe for silver doves renowned" into "Messeis, renowned for silver doves"; yet took all the risks of prophetic plagiarism when he followed Pope in numberless divergences from Homer of insertion and omission. But perhaps he anticipated that posterity might adopt Mr. Marston's charitable view that "Pope must have discovered the key to his cypher, and cribbed his translation." Mr. Marston admits that Mrs. Gallup's "bilateral cypher" imposed upon him at first, from the samples, as it did upon the cynical W. H. Mallock.

In a review published in the *Expository Times*, of Edinburgh, Prof. J. G. Tasker calls attention to a curious slip in a recent bibliography in the *Theologische Rundschau*. Under the heading "History of Israel" he has found the following entry: "Lamb (Charles), Essays of Elia." "Let us hope," comments Professor Tasker, "that the mistake has introduced some German student of the Hebrew prophet's life to the genial English essayist."

By a kind of poetic justice, among the very first undertakings of the new International Association of Academies of Sciences is to be a critical edition of the entire literary remains of the philosopher Leibniz, as it was he who first advocated the international union of savants that has only now been realized. The actual work of preparing this edition is being done jointly by the Royal Academy of Berlin and the Paris Academy of Sciences, and Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, the original proposal having emanated from the last-mentioned. The phenomenal range of learning and literary activity of Leibniz made it practically impossible for a single Academy to produce this edition, the preparation of which requires the combined efforts of mathematicians, philosophers, theologians, jurists, and historians. The edition will contain from 130 to 140 volumes.

The extensive excavations which the French Government has been making in Delphi since 1892 are approaching completion. The most important work done recently has been to lay bare the Pythian Stadium, which is nearly 178 metres in length and from 25 to 28 metres wide. As the whole sacred district of Delphi consists of rocky terraces, it was not an easy task to build a hippodrome on the very sides of Parnassus. The vast expense of the work can be judged from the detailed reports of the costs, which are still extant. It has been found that, at the starting-place, small depressions were dug out, where those who participated in the races were compelled to stand until the signal was given. There are starting-places for eighteen runners. That these took their calling seriously is evident from an inscription, dating probably from the fifth pre-Christian century, which reads as follows: "No wine shall be brought into the temple of Eudromos [the god of the racers]; but if it nevertheless be, then he for whom it is brought shall appease the god with a sacrifice, and pay five drachmas, of which the informer shall receive one-half."

A geological map of Saxony has recently been completed for the Government of that kingdom, consisting of no less than 123 separate sections, each covering about two square miles of territory, and each representing a year's labor on the part of one geologist at a cost of preparation ranging from thirty to forty thousand marks. It has already proved useful in determining the routes of new railroads, and especially in securing new water supplies for the

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cities of Leipzig and Chemnitz. The agricultural and mining interests of the country will also be materially helped by these geological surveys.

There are some indications of a reaction in German universities against a continuation or increase of the privileges which have been granted to women in recent years. In Koenigsberg, the head professor of anatomy, Dr. Stieda, as well as his colleagues holding the chairs of chemistry and of physics, Drs. Lossen and Pape, have united in excluding all women from their lectures and exercises, and this makes it practically impossible for women to study medicine in that university. As a number of professors in the faculties of theology and of philosophy have taken the same steps, women students are excluded from all real university privileges in Koenigsberg. So far, no other German Government shows any sign of following the example of Baden, which permits the matriculation of women in its two universities of Heidelberg and Freiberg. The women, however, are rushing to Berlin as nowhere else, the attendance this winter term being more than six hundred, while a year ago it was only 439, and last summer 303.

—The dead-and-alive character of most of our historical societies needed for its relief such a presidential direction as that of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, in Massachusetts. He has been struck with their aloofness from what it is the fashion to call "history in the making." Discussions in their meetings, and papers (not personal) in their proceedings, seldom postdate the Revolution or at most the war of 1812. An innovation upon this quietism has been made—and it is one of the great merits of the enterprise—in the conduct of the *American Historical Review*. Hence it was peculiarly fitting that Mr. Adams's address at the late meeting in Washington of the American Historical Association should have the place of honor in the January number of the *Review*. It is charged with gunpowder and calculated to receive all the criticism it challenges. It passes in review the main issues and the intellectual debate of the Presidential canvasses from 1856 to 1900, and concludes by recommending that the Association take a hand in each campaign hereafter, by holding at least one meeting in July for the instruction of the voter in the nature of the contest and his duty in the premises. We shall comment upon this no further than by saying that it is a common observation how little the professional study of history fits a scholar to become a political leader, or to arrive at an infallible judgment in the infinite variety of issues which attend a nation's political evolution. We apprehend that, in the case of our Imperial policy—one of the burning questions which Mr. Adams faces—our chief historians have shown either timidity or indecision, or have boldly gone counter to the highest and plainest traditions of this republic. However, we cannot say of them, as Lafontaine says of the animals and the plague:

"Ils ne mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés."

Some, to their honor, were not smitten with Imperialism. Hence, had Mr. Adams's July convention been held in 1900, it is certain that the voter would have listened to jarring notes of exposition of the issues involved, of doctrine as to the true teachings of history, and of counsel. We fear, in a word, that the stirring author of "A College Fetish" is endeavoring to make a fetish of "History." And yet—at least for the sake of the historians themselves—let us have the convention!

—The most striking features to one who glances over the *Annuaire de l'École Pratique des Hautes Etudes* (1902), are the wide hospitality which this famous institution offers, and at the same time the very exclusive, and, so to speak, aristocratic circle to which it appeals. Under the letter A we find listed in succession pupils from Constantinople, Athens, Algeria, England (Whitchurch), and finally Paris; while, on the other hand, many of the courses of lectures (or, more strictly, *conférences*) are attended by only three or four pupils, fortunate alike in the high distinction of the scholars to whom they listen and in the intimate personal intercourse which they enjoy. For this there is no parallel in the United States nor in Germany, and hardly in England, where the college tutor or coach belongs to quite another rank in the intellectual world from the great names of Maspero, Gaston Paris, Henri Weil, Oppert, and Monod. The moral of this for us Americans seems to be that the very highest class of educational work is expensive, as well as exclusive, and cannot be done wholesale. A lecturer to six hundred, or to one hundred, young men cannot possibly be doing this class of work—his leverage is at an immense disadvantage; it diminishes with the square of the number who attend. Another interesting feature is that the women have invaded these domains of the élite, and, indeed, have conquered them; for, in several cases, they receive the compliment of honorable mention.

—The volume is introduced by M. H. Gaidoz, in a little dissertation entitled "La Réquisition d'amour et le Symbolisme de la pomme," the manner of which reminds one that, in treating of the humanities, the French scholar seldom forgets or ignores men and women. In this essay, M. Gaidoz ranges lightly from Ireland to Tahiti, and explains why the sportive Galatea of the Eclogues and the Cleariste of Theocritus pelt their favorites with apples. Irish maidens and Irish fairies practise the same classic rite; the modern Greeks retain it, and along with it the special compound μηλοβολεῖν. The custom gave rise to many pretty scenes on Greek bas-reliefs and to certain groups of the figurines. The apple, as a symbol of love, was, of course, assigned to Aphrodite and to Venus, and is transferred from these, in Christian art, to the Virgin, by an irreverent but familiar superstition—the more easily because of the parallel and contrast with Eve. However, the apple is by no means the only fruit employed in this lover's game. The sirens of Tahiti fling at bathers who please their taste the *nono*, a fruit as big as the fist and of rather unpleasant odor; yet, these girls know nothing of Galatea nor of Condla and his fairy mistress. The archæologists explain all this by the remark, "The apple is the symbol of love." But the young women in Ireland and Greece and Tahiti do not concern themselves with symbols; they follow custom—they aim at simple and practical results, viz., to entice and provoke the attention of a lover. They fling an apple as they might a flower; but the apple carries farther, and is good to eat. A quince or a pomegranate will do as well—the choice of the fruit depends on the climate. So the Tahitian damsels use their native *nono: Amor arma ministrat.*

—In a recent number of the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, Dr. See of Washington publishes a preliminary investigation of the diameter of the planet Mars. He has made careful and systematic inquiry into all previous researches on this important constant, attentively studying every determination of the diameter made during the nineteenth century, recalculating several series of observations in order to render the available material more complete, and applying a more thorough treatment to the observations in order to effect an improvement in them. The earliest seventeenth-century measures, by Grimaldi and Huygens, and those in the following century by Rochon, the elder Herschel, and Schroeter, are particularly interesting. Lemonnier, 160 years ago, by reducing certain observations made a century earlier by Huygens, seems to have come singularly near the true value. Dr. See brings out with marked prominence the systemic difference between the diameter of Mars as found by the heliometer, or divided object-glass, and the micrometer, as ordinarily applied to the telescope; it amounts to more than a thirtieth part of the entire value, and signifies about 150 miles in the linear diameter of the planet. Dr. See inclines to a value very close to the heliometer determinations, and calls attention to the near accord of his final micrometer value with the individual results deduced by such standard observers as Campbell and Barnard, both at the Lick Observatory. Correcting this for irradiation effects, he deduces the final value of 6743 kilometres, the error of which probably does not exceed one three-hundredth part of the whole.

—'A Vanished Arcadia,' by Mr. R. B. Cunninghame Graham (Macmillan), is the story, from first to last, of the Jesuit mission in Paraguay. It will be remembered that, during the early years of the seventeenth century, the Jesuits managed to convert a large number of the Guaraní Indians, whose unwarlike instincts made them docile and willing proselytes. The tribes of the Chaco and the Pampas were more turbulent, and never yielded themselves fully to Jesuit guidance, but the Guaranís were swept by the thousand into "reductions," where, isolated from intercourse with pagan natives and Europeans, they received an education both spiritual and secular from the missionaries. Seldom, if ever, has the experiment of bringing up men and women on the "sheltered plan" been carried out so systematically or on so large a scale. The success of this mission was a great triumph for the Jesuits while it lasted; and even when the enterprise failed, they must have found some consolation in the thought that their work was destroyed, not by an uprising of their converts, but by an edict which came from beyond the Atlantic. Mr. Grahame has travelled and lived a good deal in South America; indeed, the study of this subject seems to have been suggested by personal familiarity with the region of the Paraná. The literature of the Paraguayan mission is already extensive, and it has not been difficult for the author to

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procure a large number of contemporary works which supply the necessary data. But, although the volume is by no means deficient on the side of research, its chief interest is due to Mr. Grahame's dashing and characteristic style. The evils of unrestricted competition, the brutality of the Saxon race, and the merits of a society which is uncontaminated by the taint of manufactures—these and other subsidiary matters of a similar kind receive their share of spirited, picturesque denunciation. Mr. Grahame thinks that the Jesuits did well by the Indians, and developed the spirit of industry among them without appropriating its fruits to themselves. Moreover, he is inclined to lament the disappearance of a pastoral elysium. "It has been nobly said, 'that the extinction of the smallest animal is a far greater loss than if the works of all the Greeks had perished.' How much the greater loss that of the type of man such as the Indians whom the semi-communistic Jesuit government successfully preserved, sheltering them from the death-dealing breath of our cold northern life and its full, fell effects!" As a piece of historical composition, this book shows wide reading, and it is written with a vigor which is quite unshackled by regard for conventional ideas.

—A publication of an absolutely unique sort is the portfolio of plates issued by the Paris house, Librairie de l'Art Ancien et Moderne. The author, Alexandre Sandier, is well known to the artists of New York, for he was here acting as assistant, first to an architect and then to a great decorating house, prior to the year 1872, and has been since that time within easy reach of us, in Paris. His singular gift of easy and swift design in a style peculiarly his own and quite independent of the traditions, while still he knew the traditions well and could give you a piece of decoration in any French epochal style from thirteenth-century Gothic to Louis Seize, was such that he could never be ignored; and such that, when we heard of his appointment to the artistic direction of the great national factory of porcelain at Sèvres, we were surprised only in so far that it seemed unusual that the ideally best man should have such a post. The book now issued by him is of a very technical character, and that is the reason for the brevity of its notice here. It is entitled simply '2,800 Formes de Vases,' and all it undertakes to do is to classify the recognized shapes by selecting the seven elementary outlines, combining and recombining these, and dividing the actual and possible shapes of hollow vessels into four series. The brief text explains that it was not thought necessary to go further, although quintuple and sextuple combinations are, of course, conceivable by any one. This analysis is carried through fifty-eight plates. The student will hardly expect to find all the forms beautiful. The author himself, veteran designer that he is, would be the first to urge that beauty of design is not the first thing sought for here, and, moreover, that it is not by analysis, and by cold reasoning-out of possibilities, that beautiful design is obtainable. What we have is, then, a seemingly exhaustive analysis of the possibilities of form along certain recognized lines of build and make. Thus, if we turn to plate 44, we shall see, ranged along the top, five drinking glasses of kindred forms, but differing from the tall and slender goblet almost like the old-fashioned "flute" down to a broad and shallow *coupe*, which outdoes in these two directions the flattest champagne glass of our own time.

BALFOUR: STEVENSON: HENLEY.

The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson. By Graham Balfour. 2 vols. Scribners.

It is always painful—even, we imagine, to the most resolutely philosophical observer of human nature—to see what happens when a great writer lays down his pen for ever. And the distress of the spectacle is aggravated if the *man*, as well as the *writer*, has endeared himself to his readers or otherwise impressed his personality upon their imagination. The outburst of praise and lamentation—as undiscriminating and communal as the songs of the women mourning for Thammuz—is not the melancholy thing; for that is natural—it is of the heart and not of the mind. We have lost one whom we loved, or who was of value to us, and our sense of deprivation takes rude shape in the immemorial reproach, "Why would ye die?" Even the critics lose their heads—as they ought, if they have hearts—and for a season nobody knows whether they are appraising their hero as a stylist or stretching out vain hands in longing toward the other shore. There ensues the recovery: the tumult and the shouting dies, and reason emerges from the contagious clouds This, too, is nothing to be sorry for. "After great storms the calm returns; and pleasanter it is thereby!" But now begins the real post-mortem tragedy—the family quarrel over the dead man's will. Our author has bequeathed us his reputation. That is our inheritance; we must not let it deteriorate; there must be neither strip nor waste. But what is the value of the estate? The inventory was made in haste. Perhaps it is too high. We fear it is—but no man must be allowed to say so. The metaphor is a poor one, but does it not signify the fact? Why should we be careful and troubled to deny the course of time—to maintain in the court of the logical conscience what was at first asserted in terms of the funeral chant? Here inconsistency accords with the truth of human nature, and is far more consistent than stubbornness itself.

Never, perhaps, has there been a more horrid outcry than that precipitated by Mr. Balfour's biography of his kinsman. It is a modest book. The very preface might disarm the doughtiest: "I wrote it," says Mr. Balfour in substance, "because Mr. Colvin was not very well, and because I knew my cousin intimately." And it is a guileless book, and gentle enough, in all conscience. It proffers no challenge. It accepts its hero as genuine, and worships him with reverence; but there is nothing dithyrambic in the ritual, nor is the adoration blind. Stevenson had his faults, says Mr. Balfour, and passes on to speak of his virtues. There were failures in his life, but let us rather dwell upon his triumphs. It is a discreet book. Scraps from Stevenson's inedited papers are published—they are even advertised, quite properly, as a "feature"; but Mr. Balfour takes pains to point out that they are printed not as literature but as autobiography. If he lets us see that he admires them, he does not try to dragoon us into applauding with him.

Let us take this 'Life,' then, for what it professes to be—a supplement to the 'Letters.' Doubtless it is not an altogether inevitable supplement. The 'Letters' themselves, with Mr. Colvin's notes, might possibly have sufficed. At all events, their publication, two years ago, left only gleanings for him who was to follow; and this was the reason, perhaps, quite as much as uncertain health, that deterred Mr. Colvin from acting as his own successor. Yet the gleanings are worth while; the book is easy and pleasant to read; we owe gratitude to Mr. Balfour for what he has done, and likewise for what he has declined to attempt. It is an official biography, no doubt, and it bears marks of the discretion that befits official utterances. But a long-suffering public, sated with literary gossip, will hardly find fault with a biographer for refusing to be indiscreet.

Yet there is an eminent critic who is no friend to discretion, and in whose code reticence is tantamount either to cowardice or to insincerity. It is Mr. Henley, and we are all familiar with his militant creed. He was Stevenson's friend for many years, and it is not admissible to question the sincerity of his attachment. A shadow fell upon their friendship, and death has deepened the shadow, or, rather, "official biography" has deepened it. Something will not suffer Mr. Henley to sleep; the tongue no man can tame; and now there is a printed utterance, for all the world to wonder at, in the December number of the *Pall Mall Magazine*. It is the strangest manifesto, full of dark oracles. A copy of the author should go with it—no smaller gloss will serve. Three things we know it contains, for Mr. Henley says they are there, and says it expressly, in so many words: egotism, garrulity, and a grievance. The first two ingredients are harmless enough; they are even amusing. The grievance is a parlous matter. It sets us guessing when we have no business to guess. And guessing is facile and always unjust: thought is free. But there are other components in this pronouncement with the triliteral title. They are not easy to name, nor always pleasant to mention. There is spite—or is it *saeva indignatio*, or perhaps only much ado about nothing? There is pathos, and bumptiousness, and lingering regret; there is something like envy—"the robe of those that climb up higher to 'scorch'"; there is candor; there is honest impatience of humbug and too keen a scent for humbug; there are *lacrimae rerum*, and other tears, of bitterer taste, which we may not analyze. There is jar of the nerves, and there are lyric memories of moments long swallowed up in the backward and abysm of time. And through it all there is innuendo, which he who runs *will* read. It is heavily dashed with that irritating figure against which Hamlet warned his friends when they had seen the ghost—the figure which the descriptive pathology of literature takes pleasure in naming *aposiopesis:* "We could, an if we would!" Mr. Henley once called Moore's Anacreon "a translation into scented soap"—a phrase for which, it appears, the gods have not forgiven him; for they condemn him in this essay to speak of Mr. Balfour's figure of Stevenson as "this Seraph in Chocolate, this barley-

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sugar effigy of a real man." Heavy punishment—to have such tropes fly out of one's mouth instead of winged words! Mr. Henley reads Artemus Ward, or used to read him. It were not blasphemy to hope that he may some day remember a stanza of Whittier's, which, in emulation of his aposiopetic hinting, we leave unquoted, lest we may seem to be censorious or to "take upon 's the mystery of things."

Stevenson the Man is Mr. Henley's subject. He says little of the literary artist, and what he says, though corrective and salutary to the undiscriminating, of whom there are many, changes nothing in the sober expressions of those critics who have weighed their words. There were two Stevensons, he tells us—an earlier and a later, and the later had too much of the catechist in him—"the shorter catechist" of the sonnet, whom Mr. Henley has never fancied. In his own mind, the essay is doubtless a vindication, the assertion of a masculine actuality in contrast with an effeminate ideal. Yet to the running reader it seems like an assault, and so it has been treated, pardonably but unjustly. For such injustice, however, the essayist has himself to blame. A hectoring manner brings its own punishment. Still, Mr. Henley always knows what he is about. He looks for no indulgence, and we shall not affront him with further exegesis. What he has written, he has written. "He has done the state some service, and they know it"; at all events, they will come to know it as time elapses and irritation fades.

What has followed is the pitiable thing. All England rings with the sound of it, and America reëchoes. Epithets are bandied about. Motives as ignoble as unmixed jealousy are ascribed with freedom. Mr. Henley has been vociferously denounced as "a literary leper," and more pointedly as "the candid friend." Starved parodies have put forth their heads, hissing. It is even reported—perhaps "announced"—that Mr. Colvin is to issue a counter-statement. This we hope is not true. Everything has been said, or threatens to be said. We wonder only that no one has thought of applying Mr. Henley's own words written elsewhere—a truculent passage, in which he declares that a certain great one's "character and achievement" are "extraordinary," and adds, "Neither can be explained, or shouted, or sniffed away." Meantime, we imagine Mr. Henley as "sitting tight" and enjoying the row—in which imagining we may do him as much injustice, for aught we know, as any of his barking detractors. One must take one's chances. And that is also true of Stevenson's reputation as a man and as an author. Neither will be saved (or lost) for "much speaking." Finally who can forget Chaucer's couplet?

"But al shal passen that men prose or rime:
Take every man his turn as for his time!"

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EDUCATION.

American Traits: from the point of view of a German. By Hugo Münsterberg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

School, College and Character. By Le Baron Russell Briggs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Professor Münsterberg now presents, in a more permanent form and to a wider public, the five papers recently published in the *Atlantic* and the *International Monthly.* It is not easy to invent an illuminating name for a volume that comprehends a comparative study of German and American ideals, education and politics, a criticism of American scholarship, and a critical survey of American women, so that Professor Münsterberg's rather vague and inexpressive title may well be the choice of despair. Two of his papers deal solely with educational problems, and a third, on "Women," touches the college woman most nearly. But it is not merely on account of their common academic interest that we have bracketed these essays with Dean Briggs's smaller volume. There is in the two books an inner resemblance of conviction that, in the present somewhat experimental stage of American education, strikes us as significant. Here we have two Harvard professors, the one a professional student of psychology, with a world-wide reputation in his field; the other peculiarly versed in that more informal study of the human mind and character for which one can imagine no spot on earth more productive than the office of a dean. Neither writer has been deterred by his academic position from speaking out his whole mind, for the Harvard tradition favors freedom of speech. A concurrence of opinion in the case of two such men has special weight, and we find them agreeing separately, and in the most forcible terms, on the disadvantages or rather dangers of certain tendencies in the "new education"—a phrase that is fast becoming as obnoxious as the "new woman." Certainly, the most serious innovation of the new education has been the elective system. Reaching up from the kindergarten to the school, reaching down to the school from the university, it is obviously in secondary education that it is likely to have the deepest effect. For, after all, one's habits of work, one's training in attacking distasteful drudgery, one's attitude, in short, to obstacles, is acquired in the school; the university can but take and mould as it may, but cannot make over the product of school-teaching and discipline. Professor Münsterberg's warnings are, therefore, directed most earnestly to those who control the school system.

His article entitled "Education" aroused much comment on its appearance in the *Atlantic,* though we do not remember that any one was able to gainsay its main conclusions. The gist of it is that it is the mission of school education to free the young from "the weight of chance desires," and not to encourage them to mistake those youthful yearnings for inspirations. Professor Münsterberg gives a most instructive picture of his own schooling at Dantzig. He tells us that, at its close, the matriculation examination which admitted him to the university was one that very few Harvard students who have entered the senior class would have been able to pass respectably:

"Our entrance into the university can thus be compared merely with the entrance into the post-graduate courses. . . . I reached thus, at the end of my school time, as a pupil of average standing, the scholarly level of an average college graduate in this country; I was then eighteen years of age; the average bachelor of arts is at least three years older" (p. 47).

Professor Münsterberg goes on to describe the outside interests, astonishing in their variety, for which he found time, as proof that overwork at school is not the explanation of the German boy's superior attainments compared with an American of like age. It is explained, he says, in part by the fact that

"the school never took the smallest account of those inclinations, and never allowed me to take the slightest step aside from the prescribed school work. . . . My school work was not adjusted to botany at nine years because I played with an herbarium, and at twelve to physics because I indulged in noises with home-made electric bells. . . . The more my friends and I wandered afield with our little superficial interests and talents and passions, the more was the straightforward earnestness of the school our blessing; and all that beautified and enriched our youth, and gave to it freshness and liveliness, would have turned out to be our ruin if our elders had taken it seriously, and had formed a life's programme out of petty caprices and boyish inclinations" (p. 52).

This, at any rate, is a negative explanation. But there were two positive factors, and, when he speaks of these, Professor Münsterberg touches a vulnerable place in the American armor.

"I had from my ninth year," he says, "no teacher in any subject who had not completed three years' work in the graduate school. Even the first elements of Greek and mathematics, of history and geography, were given to us by men who had reached the level of the doctorate, and who had the perspective of their own fields. . . . The most elementary teaching was given by men who were experts. . . . That was the secret in our German schools. . . . To bring that condition about must be the aim of every friend of American school life."

That this reform is a burning need, all will allow who realize that "only 2 per cent. of American school-teachers possess any degree whatever. If the majority of college teachers are hardly prepared to teach in a secondary school, if the majority of high-school teachers are hardly fit to teach in a primary school, and if the majority of primary-school teachers are just enough educated to fill a salesgirl's place in a millinery store, then every other reform is self-deceit" (p. 76).

Another positive factor was home influence. The German parent takes school work seriously. "The school had the right of way. A reprimand in the school was a shadow on our home life; a word of praise in the school was a ray of sunshine for the household." How many American parents take their sons' schooling as seriously as this? Inefficient teachers, indulgent parents, the extension of the kindergarten methods to the school—these are the three influences that sap the life of secondary education in America.

But it may be objected that we cannot adapt Americans to the German point of view. Let us consult Dean Briggs. Like his German colleague, he attacks the elective system from the kindergarten up and from the college down. The fundamental idea that education need not be forbidding is all right, but "no persons lay themselves open more recklessly to *reductio ad absurdum* than advocates of the elective system." Election of studies must of course come at some point in all higher education; but where to begin? It is or should be clear that we begin too early when we invent devices to delude children into thinking they are playing games, though we are really teaching them harmony by means of a story called "Major C and his Relatives," or the distinctions of nouns, verbs, and adjectives by the analogy of sparrows,

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robins, and hens. Such methods, which are closely allied to the elective system, ought to offend the intelligence of any child of sense. "Debilitating" is a mild word for these painless methods. No one can attain power in any other of the tasks of life except by honest effort to overcome difficulties. Work along the line of least resistance is bound to produce a student "flabby of mind and will." When one so trained, or, rather, so enervated, comes from school to college, what is his attitude to those limited doses of prescribed work that even the advocates of the elective system would maintain? In the first place, the prescribed subject must be easy because the student has been trained to think that one ought not to be forced to take a difficult subject unless one likes it. Mr. Dooley has grasped the situation: "Th' prisidint takes him into a Turkish room, gives him a cigarette, an' says, 'Me dear boy, what special branch iv l'arnin' would ye like to have studied f'r ye be our compitint professors?'"

What is the general result in college life? Dean Briggs emphasizes even more strongly than Professor Münsterberg the lack of training that results. "To set work above whim—that is training"; and in the case of the college student there is "a complete uncertainty as to whether he will be trained or not." Only in athletics can the student who has grown up under the elective system find opportunity for discipline; it is only there that there is short shrift for the man that shirks. The opéra-bouffe view of college life, encouraged by many parents and by most students, the certainty that cutting lectures will be taken as a sign of spirit, while regular attendance will not—these influences often find their only corrective in college athletics. Dean Briggs says that he would take the elective system out of the grammar school, and that he is "not attacking it in colleges"; but the whole tenor of his paper goes to support Professor Münsterberg's conviction that

"the higher the level on which the professional specializing begins, the more effective it is," and that, "even in the college, . . . election with reference to the later occupation usually plays a secondary rôle; liking is the great ruler . . . Even in the college, two-thirds of the elections are haphazard, controlled by accidental motives."

In his article on "Scholarship," Professor Münsterberg points out that the condition of productive scholarship in America is not satisfactory. In Germany it is the essential interest of all university activity; in America it is "an accessory element, a secondary factor, almost a luxury." It is certainly true that the best men in the country are not attracted to the scholarly life. The incentives of high social standing and large salaries that draw the best minds of Germany to the scholar's pursuit, are lacking here. Those who enter on a professorial career are driven to do work that will pay, and productive scholarship goes to the wall. Professor Münsterberg's insistence on the necessity of printing the doctor's thesis, and of keeping the ambitions of the younger men fixed on scholarly aims, is decidedly at variance with the recent utterances of Dr. Kekulé, the rector of the University of Berlin, which were lately noticed in these columns. The German professor who knows us best tells us that we have too little scholarship; the other warns us from Berlin against having too much—as though one should set forth to the starving the disadvantages of a rich table. When we shall have reached the German level of productive scholarship, and have so adjusted the emoluments and social premiums of the scholarly life as to attract the best brains in the country from Wall Street to the college campus—when the splendid endowments of Mr. Carnegie and others shall have achieved this result, it will be time to pause and weigh the risks of too much scholarship. Dr. Kekulé tells us to be content with the technical school. We imagine that Americans are more likely to heed the advice of Professor Münsterberg not to allow American scholarship to remain "inferior even to American poetry and architecture" (p. 126).

Professor Münsterberg's views on "Women" are not likely to pass unchallenged, and we have not here the space in which to meet them fairly. His admiration of the American woman is limited only by his anxious forebodings of her too complete and independent success. He says some very definite things about her "passive and receptive mind" (charming in its place), as compared with the masculine intellect; and prophesies that unless men do something drastic the whole realm of art and literature, as well as some of the learned professions, will slip through masculine fingers. The "effemination of culture" will be the dire result. Of all the arguments against the higher education of women that we have encountered, this is the most obviously double-edged. Where, then, is the advantage of the superior strenuousness and power of the masculine mind? If it is doomed to fail to control the destinies of art, literature, and the learned professions, if it supinely suffers the emasculation of all that tends to raise the level of civilization, the mind of the American man might just as well be "passive and receptive" as not, since in passivity and receptivity lies success.

We leave the doubts here raised as to the advisability of coeducation in the American universities to its proper champions; but we may be allowed to point out that when he exhorts those homes of learning to become, "like European institutions, places for men, where only the exceptional women of special talent can be welcomed," Professor Münsterberg appears to neglect the fact that there are 600 women studying this winter at the University of Berlin. Have they all special talent? And if not, what about the effemination of Berlin? It appears that the German universities also are threatened with that "loss of virility" that Prof. Barrett Wendell once feared for Harvard.

Among the undesirable tendencies fostered by college life for women, Professor Münsterberg reckons a disinclination for marriage. The burden of proof that her college training renders the prospect of home duties (in a home of her own) distasteful to the average woman, lies with those who make the assertion. Statistics are valueless here, and must be so for many years to come. Professor Münsterberg has weakened the argument by his statement that the "anti-domestic" tendency draws away quite another class of women in this country "from the hearth to the mill and the salesroom," and is "not less evident in the lower strata of the community." Why, then, blame the college? Why not admit the truth, for America as for Germany, that a million women at least have no choice but to ignore the possibility of marrying, and must turn to work outside the home as a measure of self-preservation? In any case the peculiarities (if they exist) of the college woman can have strikingly little effect on the general course of American civilization. And if Professor Münsterberg will stand by his assertion that a college education does not make a woman herself less attractive, he need not lie awake over the problem of converting her to the attractions of the home. As for her alleged disillusion on finding that she can beat a boy at his lessons, women are rather prone to find stupidity endearing. Look at the stupid heroes of Mr. Henry James, and observe the devotion to them of the clever heroines. This question of intellectual priggishness as a bar to matrimony was long ago handled lightly and lightly dismissed by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner in 'A Little Journey in the World' (p. 38), where Professor Münsterberg may see his own theory expressed almost in his own words, but without his serious deductions.

We have dwelt on Professor Münsterberg's papers on education and the allied problems because we consider them the most interesting and significant of the series. The remaining chapters, on "American Democracy" and "The Americans and the Germans," are both entertaining and enlightening, and will commend the book to a still wider class of readers.

In his articles entitled "Fathers, Mothers, and Freshmen," and "Transition from School to College," Dean Briggs discusses the relations of parents to their undergraduate sons, and discloses some of the difficulties that beset a Dean. That for the improvement of the relations between the undergraduate and his college advisers, the latter must look to the parents for essential assistance, is made plain by the experiences here detailed. The weight of home influence, the underhand dealings of many parents with both the college and their sons, are factors that have to be met and overcome. The advice to parents in this little volume would, if taken to heart, save many a father and son from a false conception of college life as an opportunity for four years of irresponsibility before the real work of life begins. The language of Dean Briggs is forcible and occasionally embittered by the experience which has fitted him to give so much excellent advice.

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON LINEAR PERSPECTIVE.

Linear Perspective, Adapted for Colleges, Schools, and Teachers, and for Self-Instruction; including Examples in Parallel, Angular, and Oblique Perspective. By Edward T. Cooper. 11½x15¾ in.; 2 pp. text; 28 double plates, each with text and on cardboard. Cleveland, O.: Lamson & Carpenter. 1901.

Applied Perspective for Architects and Painters. By William P. P. Longfellow. 8x 11 in.; ix, 96 pp.; 141 illustrations, partly in text and partly in 33 plates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Modern Perspective; A Treatise upon the Principles and Practice of Plane and Cylin-

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drical Perspective. By William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in Columbia University. Text, 5x7½ in.; viii, 396 pp., with 30 plates each 11x15 in., in a separate portfolio. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

A knowledge of linear perspective is of such direct practical value in the graphic arts that the teaching of it must always occupy a place of considerable importance in any well-arranged course in drawing. In technical schools, where the students, as a rule, approach the subject well grounded in plane and spherical geometry, and often fresh from a course in analytic or the more immediately related descriptive geometry, the teaching of linear perspective, even in its higher branches, is not a difficult task. But in schools of art the case is a far different one. Few of the students have advanced beyond the grammar grade of the public school. Most of them lack the rudiments of geometry. Not a quarter of them can define an octagonal prism. Confused ideas of the meaning of such words as vertical and perpendicular are constant stumbling-blocks. Even though the careful teacher should, before entering upon his proper subject, attempt to lay a foundation of elementary geometry, he finds his pupils' minds so unused to the nice accuracy of mathematical expression that he at once realizes, as the students themselves cannot, the grave disadvantage under which they labor in their struggle to master a subject which, though of use in the fine arts, is, in fact, a branch of one of the exact sciences.

To make the subject clear to the understanding of such students is the purpose of Mr. Edward T. Cooper's 'Linear Perspective.' In spite of its rather pretentious title, which reminds one of Mr. Blaine's historic phrase, "Claim everything," the book covers but a narrow field. With the more intricate problems of the subject it does not concern itself. With the theory of perspective the book has little to do. Its keynote is simplicity. To teach plain and practical methods of solving the more usual problems is its end. This it does by a series of diagrams presenting not only the elementary principles of perspective, but their application to such simple figures and solids as will least confuse the beginner. The book contains ingenious illustrations, in which, by means of lines ruled on photographs, the position of the horizon, centre of vision, vanishing points, etc., are very clearly shown. Among these the best form a series of photographs, in which a table covered with squares of black and white paper arranged as a checker-board is shown, first, with its sides at right angles to the picture plane, and consequently with its retreating lines converging at the centre of vision, while the diagonals of its squares vanish at the distance points; secondly, as set at an angle with the picture plane, thus illustrating the relation of the vanishing points for systems of lines at right angles with each other; thirdly, in the same position, but with many of the paper squares lying upon it in accidental positions; showing that each of these has its own pair of vanishing points, yet all upon the horizon. Although the amount of matter contained in the book is small, the great size of its plates (15½x20 inches) gives it an advantage in simplicity of presentation, since the sundry points are actually put upon the page and do not have to be imagined at a distance beyond its margin, as is so often the case. In places, the text lacks scientific precision—a defect which may have arisen from a deliberate choice of familiar expressions intended to avoid the use of terms less readily comprehended by the untrained mind.

Mr. W. P. P. Longfellow, in his 'Applied Perspective,' approaches his subject from quite a different point of view from that of Mr. Cooper. From the fact that he does not exclude the more difficult problems, his book, or rather its latter half, has an apparent intricacy that is due to the subject rather than to the author's way of handling it. Mr. Longfellow points out at starting that "the practice of perspective depends not so much on many principles, as on the varied application of a few," and that it is an easy matter for a man of fair capacity to acquire enough for every-day use. Instinctive readiness of resource to solve varied and intricate problems as they appear, he finds to be the distinguishing mark of the skilful draughtsman. He therefore devotes the first half of his book to those simple principles necessary to qualify the student for work of ordinary difficulty, while in the second he discusses such problems as the draughtsman must be prepared to solve if he is to be accounted thoroughly skilful.

As its title shows, the author is concerned with the *application* of the principles of perspective to actual work, yet he has by no means overlooked the necessity for carrying the theory of the subject along with the practice. Permitting himself an abundance of words, and nowhere attempting "to adhere to the rigorous forms of theoretical mathematics," he is able to make his subject far clearer to the average understanding than he would have done by such adherence. His method permitting whatever digressions may please his fancy or contribute to a readier understanding of his subject, he indulges in them, here and there, with good effect. In the first place, instead of defining the horizon as the intersection of the picture plane with a horizontal plane passing through the spectator's eye (a sufficiently accurate, but to the beginner by no means luminous statement), Mr. Longfellow begins by discoursing upon perspective in nature, describing the horizon at sea, and showing that this horizon is in appearance always just at the level of the eye, and that whether we sink our eye to the level of the sea, or go up even to a great height in a balloon, the horizon follows us, and seems always at our own level. So interestingly does he discourse of this phenomenon, and of the curious consequences that arise from it, and of the frequent disregard in paintings of the limitations it imposes, that we are carried into the midst of the subject without realizing it, and presently find ourselves occupied with an equally interesting discussion of the distinction between foreshortening and mere diminution in size on account of the distance of the object. From this it is an easy passage to the question of why and where lines vanish in perspective; but so informally is the introduction treated that the foundation for all that follows is laid before we suspect it.

Without going into detail, suffice it to say that at certain points the presentation of the subject seems quite new, and that, in general, there is a freshness about the author's manner that serves well to maintain the reader's interest. This is notably true of the chapter upon the use of perspective in the construction of pictures, and in the chapter upon the many singular and unpleasant distortions in the forms of objects resulting from a rigorous application of the rules of perspective, when not accompanied by a judicious selection of the point of view and a reasonable modification of certain resultant forms.

In closing let us note that Prof. William R. Ware's 'Modern Perspective' has recently been republished, and that thereby an opportunity has been given to add to the book a discussion of a few subjects not included in the original edition. 'Modern Perspective' is a work of an essentially different character from either of those that we have been considering. It assumes a thorough preparation in mathematics on the part of the student. It wastes no words in making things easy for him. Its aim is to present the whole theory of the subject in the most thorough and scientific way. Some examples of the use of the principles are wisely included in the book, and thus in a certain sense it treats, like Mr. Longfellow's book, of applied perspective. Professor Ware's work has been too long before the public to justify any extended notice of it at this late day; enough that it is the most authoritative work upon linear perspective in the English language. For one who wishes to understand thoroughly the science of perspective, it is at once adequate and indispensable.

Present Irish Questions. By William O'Connor Morris, County Court Judge. London: Grant Richards. 1901.

The interest of this book to Irish readers will consist mainly in the fact that the author is a judge whose duty is to administer impartially the laws which he so roundly condemns as unjust. It is well known that most of the judges and highly placed and paid officials in Ireland hold very similar views, but they do not parade them in public, however much they may allow their decisions and actions to be influenced by their prejudices and convictions.

Judge O'Connor Morris is a landlord, and has been from his youth to his now advanced age a Tory pamphleteer, press-writer, and author of many works similar to this. His views with regard to the actual state of Ireland may appear, he says, "gloomy and paradoxical." The latter they certainly are, especially on the land question, which occupies the greater part of the book. The land system of the past he describes as essentially bad, inasmuch as the joint ownership and concurrent rights of the Irish tenant with his landlord in the soil did not receive, as "it was but just they should," the recognition and sanction of the law. Nevertheless, the attempts of the Legislature during the last thirty years to recognize the Irish tenants' concurrent rights meet with the Judge's unqualified disapproval; they came too late; they were wrongly conceived, and have resulted in confiscation pure and simple of the landlords' just rights. These are paradoxes indeed—what should have been done sixty years ago is rank injustice now. A wail about confiscation pervades the whole book, but the term has application only to the estates of landlords. It is confiscation to reduce the rents receivable by landlords

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by the value of the improvements made by the tenants, but it was not confiscation for the landlords to raise the rents as the tenants' improvement works made their farms more valuable.

More than half the book is taken up with the oft-repeated story of the Irish land laws, including illustrations in detail of their iniquitous effects upon the landlord class. The result is thus stated in chapter i., describing Ireland in 1901: "The attempts that have been made to reform the Irish land system in the last sixty years, have been, with scarcely an exception, failures." The book itself suggests the reason, and the reply—that this is so because the administration of the reforming measures has been intrusted to such judges as the author. Act has been piled upon act, during the last thirty years, with the main object of trying to secure to the Irish tenant those "concurrent rights," that "joint ownership," to which Judge Morris says he was justly entitled. But the Irish judges, drawn almost invariably from a class hostile to all reform that touched the pockets or privileges of their class and creed, have invariably evaded and nullified the law. Judge Morris's testimonial to the present head of the Land Commission (p. 224) is as good an illustration of the feeling prevalent in the Irish courts and among the judges as could be—"a capable and experienced lawyer, he has done probably as much as in him lay to alleviate some of the wrong done to Irish landlords." That is to say, the law has been wrested, its plain meaning perverted, in the interest of landlord suitors, and the tenants have been deprived of what the Legislature intended they should have, the ownership of their own improvements.

Home Rule, Judge Morris thinks, is by no means dead. It is a "present Irish question," and is inconsistently attributed to a foreign conspiracy against the State, and to the shifty, vacillating, unprincipled administration of Ireland by England. Signal ignorance of Irish affairs has been the characteristic of English legislation and administration. He quotes with approval O'Connell's statement, "We are governed by foreigners; foreigners make our laws." The Home Rule bills of 1886 and 1893 are exhaustively and acutely examined. Every plan proposed is fraught with danger. Separation would be preferable; but also worse, for "illiterate, indigent multitudes, an ignorant priest-ridden democracy," would work ruin to themselves; an Irish Parliament "would trample on and oppress hundreds of thousands of law-abiding men." The independence of the poorest country in Europe at the door of the richest would be impracticable.

The chapter on the financial relations of Ireland and England is a bit of vigorous writing. There are no two sides to this question, in Judge Morris's opinion. The report of the Childers Commission that Ireland is overtaxed to the amount of two or three millions sterling a year, falls short of the real truth; the arguments of the present Government and their supporters against this conclusion are "a compound of absurd and offensive insolence." "Is it a seemly sight, is it becoming in the eyes of the world, that the richest country in Europe should practically impose an iniquitous burden upon the poorest?" The sum of the whole matter is that the Irish landlords must be compensated for the huge confiscation made of their property; their rentals must be kept up, their taxes remitted, and their class preserved in all its privileges to govern and administer the affairs of an ignorant and ungrateful democracy. The recent reform of the system of local government is not altogether pleasing to Judge Morris. The whole scheme "will ultimately have to be reformed, in a conservative sense, if things in Ireland are not to be left upside down." This upside-downness consists mainly in the principle that "a cottar has the same voting power as a man of forty thousand a year." Yet the cottar must pay the local rates, while the owner of a rental of £40,000 pays none.

As on the question of finance, so on that of education, Judge Morris takes the modern and popular view. Protestant ascendency ought not to exist in university life; and Trinity College, the only institution which can be called a university, remains "a Protestant institution, well endowed, almost a monopoly of the Protestant upper class."

Judge Morris is a practised writer, but we have had a good deal of the contents of this book in his former publications, and his denunciation of the Land, National, and United Irish leagues is only a development of his judicial orations on the bench, repeated at almost every session. These organizations are held responsible by him for every crime and offence, and even for accidents in the districts where he sits as a County Court Judge. In the abnormally dry spring of 1901, fires took place on moors and heaths in County Sligo, as they did also in Lancashire and Yorkshire, where they were far more extensive and destructive to land and game. But the United Irish League existed in Sligo, and the law in Ireland makes the district rate-payers liable to pay compensation for any such occurrence if the judge holds it to have occurred through malice. Judge Morris announced that fires could not occur at such a time of year except through malice, and saddled the ratepayers with enormous compensation, which was substantially reduced on appeal. This fire he describes (p. 30) as "a serious outbreak of agrarian crime, in the form of incendiary fires, which may be distinctly traced to the operations of the United Irish League." The law in the hands of such a judge holds out distinct inducements, often availed of, to persons to set fire to their own houses, hay, heaths, etc., and then to obtain from the ratepayers an extravagant amount of compensation.

'Present Irish Questions' is likely to give rise to some interesting debates in Parliament, for there is little doubt that a motion will be made to remove the Judge from his position on the ground that he is an unfit person to administer the laws which he has denounced and stigmatized as unjust.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, R. W., and Carter, Ernest. Songs of the Eastern Colleges. Hinds & Noble. $1.25.
Beeching, H. C. Inns of Court Sermons. Macmillan. $1.25.
Chapman, Frederic. Ancient Royal Palaces in and near London. John Lane. $6.
Essays on the Teaching of History. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Fawcett, Mrs. Life of the Right Hon. Sir William Molesworth. Macmillan. $2.75.
Green, J. R. Oxford Studies. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hardesty, Irving. Neurological Technique. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Kirkpatrick, A. F. The Book of Psalms, Books IV.-V. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 80 cents.
*La Mara. Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Caro*lyne Sayn-Wittgenstein. Part IV. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Miller, W. J. The American Church Dictionary and Cyclopedia. Thomas Whittaker.
Mürger, Henry. The Latin Quarter. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Murison, R. G. Babylonia and Assyria. (Bible Class Primers.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 20 cents.
New England Society Orations. 2 vols. The Century Co. $5.
Peterson, William. Anecdota Oxoniensia, Classical Series, Part IX. Henry Frowde.
Pierce, A. H. Studies in Auditory and Visual Space Perception. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Robertson, Archibald. Regnum Dei. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Schouler, James. Alexander Hamilton. (Beacon Biographies.) Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Staley, Edgcumbe. Watteau. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Stephen, Leslie, and Pollock, Frederick. Lectures and Essays by the late William Kingdon Clifford. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Taylor, Hannis. A Treatise on International Public Law. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The Newcomes. Macmillan. $1.
Thwaites, R. G. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin; Memorial Volume. Madison (Wis.): State Historical Society.
Tiffany, Nina M., and Lesley, Susan I. Letters of James Murray, Loyalist. Boston: W. B. Clarke Co.
Wells, Carolyn. Mother Goose's Menagerie. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co. $1.50.
Wilson, R. R. Washington, the Capital City. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.

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